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ABSTRACT

The following 26 papers are presented in this document: "The Relationship between the Adult's Cognitive Style and Achieving Style to Preference for Self-Directed Learning" (Bitterman); "Developing a Mentoring Program for Persons in Independent Work Sites" (De Vries); "Reflection and the Problem of Self-Deception in Adult Learning" (Dirkx); "A Contingency Model for Planning Educational Programs" (Finley); "Adult High School Noncompleters Receiving General Assistance: Analysis on the Basis of Reference Group Theory" (Fisher); "Is a Learning Style-Personality Type Relationship Characteristic of Adult Learners?" (Fratzke); "Community Service by First Offenders: Adult Development through Symbolic Restitution" (Hanson-Stone); "Inquiry as a Function of Practice" (Heaney); "A Comparison of Three Transfer of Training Strategies in Inservice Adult Teacher Training" (Henschke); "Long Term Impact Evaluation of Continuing Education Programs" (Henschke); "The Assessment of Organizational Ineffectiveness and Effectiveness in Colleges and Universities" (Jones); "International Perspectives on Increasing Support for Continuing Education" (Knox); "The Decision Making Process in Adult and Community Education Programs: The Director as Decision Maker" (Levine, Snoddy, Suvedi); "The Perceptions and Attitudes of School Superintendents toward Adult Illiteracy" (Ludden, Wood); "Roles and Methods of Educators in Building Leadership Skills and Attitudes" (McIntee, Rossing); "Dropout in Adult Literacy Programs: An Application of Tinto's Model of Attrition" (Martin); "Do Returning Adult Men Students Have Psychosocial Concerns?" (Muench); "Factors Leading to the Termination of Three Consortia of Higher Education Institutions: A Case Study" (Offerman); "Expert Systems as a Vehicle for the Transfer of Research-to-Practice" (Oravec); "A Framework for Evaluating Child Abuse Prevention Programs" (Pamperin); "Research, Reward, and Professional Practice" (Podeschi); "Illinois Literacy Hotline Evaluation" (Sheared); "The Long-Term Effects of Wingspread Conferences" (Tait); "Factors Influencing Lifelong Learning of Professional Nurses" (Wagner); "Comparison of the Training Process or Methods between In-House Trainers and External Consultants" (Westover); and "An Analysis of Supervisory and Management Development Training Needs of Public Sector Employees" (Spikes). (CML)

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PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

1988 MIDWEST RESEARCH TO PRACTICE

IN ADULT AND COMMUNITY EDUCATION

Editor: Chere Campbell Coggins

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October 3, 1988

Dear Research to Practice Conferee:

Welcome to the 7th Annual Midwest Research to Practice in Adult and Continuing Education Conference. The faculty, staff and students of the Department of Continuing and Vocational Education, University of Wisconsin-Madison, as hosts of the conference, are pleased you have joined us for what we believe will be a most enlightening educational experience. The opportunity for dialogue among researchers and practitioners is critical. Each shares common concerns and questions. Each brings a different perspective to their resolution. Through the application of research findings to practice and the struggle to resolve the practical problems through research, our mutual enterprises of adult, continuing and community education are advanced.

To those who have worked diligently to make this conference a success, the Steering Committee and the Local Arrangements Committee and especially the presenters who have come from throughout the Midwest and beyond to share their insights, special thanks.

On behalf of all involved, welcome! We hope you enjoy not only the conference but also the campus, its facilities and the Madison area.

Cordially,

Robert D. Boyd

Chère Campbell Coggins

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ABSTRACT

Title: The Relationship Between the Adult's Cognitive Style and Achieving Style to Preference for Self-Directed Learning

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Determining the characteristics of adults who tend to prefer self-directed learning (SDL) has been the topic of many research studies in adult education. Although cognitive style and learning style (both indicating patterns of mental processing) have been investigated often in relation to self-directed learning preference, a new characteristic, designated appropriately as achieving style, has never been introduced to adult education or examined in relation to SDL preference. The purpose of the study, then, was to investigate the relationship between the adult's cognitive style, achieving style and selected demographic variables to a preference for self-directed learning. The sample consisted of 300 adults 23 to 80 years old from randomly selected locations in northern Illinois. The subjects were administered three separate instruments to measure cognitive style (Group Embedded Figures Test), achieving style (The Achieving Style Inventory) and self-directed learning preference (The Self-Directed Learning Readiness Scale). In addition, 30 interviews were conducted to validate the use of the SDLRS as a measure of self-directed learning preference. Findings indicated that nine subject characteristics were significant in explaining SDL variance alone, and together accounted for 61% of the variance in self-directed learning preference. Achieving style was the most significant and cognitive the least significant of the nine. Self-directed learners and facilitators of self-directed learning have much to gain in practice by acknowledging and using achieving style theory.

The Relationship Between the Adult's Cognitive Style and Achieving Style to Preference for Self-Directed Learning

Adult education researchers have conducted many studies in order to identify certain characteristics of adults who tend to prefer self-directed learning (SDL). Several of the studies have examined the extensive cognitive style research of H.A. Witkin and associates (1977) and their theory of field independence and dependence. Field independent or analytic thinkers tend to be isolated learners, while field dependent or whole concept thinkers tend to be more socially-oriented and in need of social referents to learn. Several adult education researchers have extrapolated these conclusions (Pratt 1984; Even 1982; Walker & Simpson 1983) and deduced that self-directed learners, then, must be field independent thinkers, because they are able to solve problems on their own while field dependent thinkers seek out mediators in learning.

Recently, Brookfield (1986) has reviewed his 1981 study of successful self-directed learners and pointed out that his subjects possessed characteristics of field dependent thinkers. Perhaps mental processing is only a part of what adult education researchers must investigate when determining the etiology of self-directed learning behavior. To the investigator, the self-directed learners in Brookfield's 1981 study were achievers. They seemed to be motivated by goals to achieve recognition and comraderie with fellow learners. The learners in the Gibbons, et. al. (1980) study were achievers with no formal training beyond high school. After conducting a literature review in achievement motivation, the investigator discovered a theory of achieving styles developed by Lipman-Blumen and associates (1983). The theory proposed three achieving "domains" that represented motives for <u>how</u> to accomplish goals: a) with people or relational, b) through people or instrumental, and c) immediately on the environment or direct. These domains seemed to have a great deal of content validity for explaining motives and methods of goal-oriented, self-directed learning behavior.

Houle (1961) had already concluded that there are three types of learners: goal-oriented, learning-oriented and activity-oriented. The achieving style theory seemed to fit the goal-oriented, learning project "stream" (Griffin 1978) of self-directed learners, which accounts for a large number of individuals who participate in self-directed learning activities. Thus, to test the achieving style theory and suggest that many characteristics are present in the complex phenomenon, self-directed learning, the investigator decided to examine the relationships among cognitive style, achieving style, age, gender and educational level to preference for self-directed learning. There was no attempt to "label" self-directed learners in this exploratory study; achieving style theory suggests that individuals can learn to access various styles for certain situations. However, if there are no social sanctions or outside pressures involved, individuals tend to possess two to three "peak" achieving styles that they automatically utilize in any learning situation.

The important learning mechanism in the achieving style theory is the child's need to satisfy physical needs in a dependent setting. Children will learn to "get what they want" either with, apart or through others. As a

result, humans develop styles of goal accomplishment (achieving styles) that are transferred to how they complete self-directed learning tasks. Direct achievers confront the achievement tasks directly and use their own efforts. The instrumental achiever evaluates relationships with others and accomplishments as to their value in promoting further achievements of the individual. Relational achievers passively or actively help others to accomplish their goals in order to accomplish their own. Within each of these domains are three subcategories that further differentiate learned achieving patterns in human behavior. The three demographic variables (age, gender and educational level) were chosen because of their documented influence on self-directed learning preference in past research studies.

METHODOLOGY

There was one null hypothesis for the study set at the .05 alpha level for significance: There is no relationship among cognitive style, achieving style, age, gender and educational level alone and in any combination to the adult's preference for self-directed learning. It was understood that Brookfield (1986) and others have encouraged the qualitative measurement of self-directed learning, yet there is error in any type of data gathering. Therefore, the investigator chose to use both quantitative and qualitative research methods for the study.

The sample consisted of 300 adults from northern Illinois, 23 to 80 years old with a minimum of an eighth grade education. Subject locations were randomly selected, with 200 of the 300 subjects from the jury lounge at the DuPage County Courthouse in Wheaton, Illinois. All subjects completed three instruments: the Group Embedded Figures Test (GEFT) to measure cognitive style, the Achieving Styles Inventory (ASI) to measure achieving style and the Self-Directed Learning Readiness Scale (SDLRS) to measure a preference for self-directed learning. In addition, 30 short interviews were conducted with 10% selected from each of the seven locations in the study in order to provide validation of the SDLRS as a measure of self-directed learning preference. Correlations, multiple regressions and measures of central tendency were employed for statistical analysis. Interviews were conducted before the quantitative data was compiled to avoid any bias in data interpretation.

FINDINGS

The null hypothesis was rejected. Results indicated that the achieving style inventory was a highly valid and reliable instrument. Cronbach alphas for the direct, instrumental and relational achieving style domains were .925, .870 and .894 respectively. A factor analysis of the ASI was very clean, with all nine constructs clearly found. The other instruments were also valid and reliable with this sample, but had been tested in numerous adult education studies in the past.

Several multiple regression analyses were run, with the final analysis revealing nine subject characteristics together accounted for 61% of the variance in self-directed learning preference. Table 1 shows that the overall significance level was $p < .0001$. The intrinsic-direct and power-direct achieving styles explained the most variance in SDL preference, with the

TABLE 1

Multiple Regression Analysis:
Self-Directed Learning Preference
Explained by Nine Subject Characteristics

Subject Characteristic	Raw Score B	Standard Score B	Sig.
Age	.303	.111	$p < .005$
Educational Level	1.809	.173	$p < .001$
Gender	-11.911	-.182	$p < .0001$
GEFT Score	.555	.102	$p < .02$ (.0152)
ASI Subscales			
Intrinsic-Direct	12.959	.448	$p < .0001$
Power-Direct	7.149	.314	$p < .0001$
Personal-Instrumental	- 2.790	-.111	$p < .02$ (.0129)
Social-Instrumental	- 3.223	-.125	$p < .01$
Reliant-Instrumental	- 3.642	-.127	$p < .005$

	R	R^2	F	Sig.
Overall Regression	.780	.608	50.104	$p < .0001$

intrinsic-direct achieving style possessing about four times the explanatory power of the GEFT or the measure of cognitive style. The power-direct achieving style explained approximately three times as much SDL preference as the GEFT. Age and educational level were both significant in explaining SDL preference, but were only about a third as powerful as the intrinsic-direct achieving style in accounting for variance in the dependent variable. This study also indicated that women tended to prefer self-directed learning more than men, although the means and medians of SDLRS scores of men and women in the study were only separated by about two points. Men in the sample tended to be more field independent and direct achievers and women tended to be more field dependent and relational achievers. Perhaps this more "traditional" outcome can be partially explained by the mean age of the sample, 43.9 years.

The 30 interviews indicated that the SDLRS was valid to measure self-directed learning preference, and also demonstrated achieving styles "at work" in the reflections and dialogue of 11 of the 30 subjects. Several learners were members of self-help groups that were clearly chosen by relational achievers; direct achieving styles were found in one man who was building his own garage and another who was rebuilding a stereo; a man who was renovating an authentic World War II fighter plane was motivated by the recognition he received for it and exemplified an instrumental achiever. No further depth was sought in the interviews, because their primary purpose was to validate the use of the SDLRS to measure SDL preference rather than readiness. Hassan (1981) is one researcher who has demonstrated a strong correlation between SDL readiness and actual participation in SDL activities. Thus the investigator chose the SDLRS for this study, but wished to confirm it through qualitative interviewing.

IMPLICATIONS

This study introduced the theory of achieving style to adult education research. The fact that five of the nine achieving styles were significant in explaining learners' preference for self-directed learning indicates that this work might be the first of many studies examining the impact of achieving styles on self-directed learning. In addition, learners might select self-directed learning activities that are more compatible with their preferred achieving styles if they are aware of those styles. By selecting SDL activities according to preferred achieving styles(s), learners might finish more projects and derive more satisfaction from SDL activities.

Facilitators of self-directed learning have a new diagnostic tool (ASI) to detect reasons for success and failure in self-directed learning pursuits. The Achieving Styles Inventory is certainly not the only tool, but it could be a partial answer for goal-oriented, self-directed learners who are stagnated or dissatisfied in their learning tasks. Perhaps not everyone can become the experts that Brookfield (1981) interviewed in England, because of natural talent, economic status or environmental circumstances, but it is also interesting to note that not everyone aspires to expertise, because not everyone tends to be a direct or instrumental achiever.

In addition, this study indicated that cognitive style alone is a rather weak indicator of self-directed learning preference. If this study was repeated, the investigator would try to find a substitute for the SDLRS to measure self-directed learning preference. The thread linking the theories of

field independent/dependent cognitive style, achieving style and goal-oriented, self-directed learning is the notion of autonomy. Each theory indicates the degree to which the learner chooses autonomous control over the learning task in a different dimension. The SDLRS seems to emphasize independence in learning rather than autonomy, and thus the strong relationship between the intrinsic-direct achieving style and SDL preference in this study might be examined in future investigations.

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Developing a Mentoring Program for Persons in Independent Work Sites

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this paper is to describe the nature and quality of a mentoring relationship in which the participants function in independent work sites. The population of the research project were thirty-two ordained ministers of a small protestant denomination. The data were collected in two discreet phases. Phase one produced an inclusive categorization system for analyzing mentor/protege relationships. The second phase continued the study focussing on the characteristics of an effective mentor, protege, and relationship. The effective mentor was willing to invest in the relationship, was of an advanced career status relative to the protege, was self-confident, and was willing to reciprocate in the relationship. The study concluded that the relationship was one which would lead to a decreasing focus on career and vocational issues with an increasing focus on the pyschosocial development of the protege. A second conclusion was that the mentor's relational style must adapt to this changing focus in the relationship. Third, the process of learning that occurred within the relationship was best described by the experiential taxonomic terms of internalization and dissemination. Fourth, mentoring programs in independent work sites differed from those in which the participants share a common work context. The paper concludes with four guidelines for the development of a mentoring program for persons in independent work sites.

Developing a Mentoring Program for Persons in Independent Work Sites

Robert C. De Vries, Ph.D.

Introduction

Recently, adult educators have begun to focus more intently on the development of mentoring programs as a way to enhance the learning process of an adult. Structured mentoring programs have been developed in the areas of medicine, education, and business. However, the effectivenes of such structured programs has been questioned. Keele, Buckner and Bushnell, for example, sound a warning saying that "mentor-protege relationships may inhibit employee development rather than enhance it" (1987:61). Keele, et. al., raise legitimate questions about a mentor-protege relationship in which both the mentor and protege share responsibility and accountability in the same job setting. As a matter of fact, many of the current mentoring programs are set up in situations where the participants sustain a variety of work related relationships beyond the mentor-protege relationship. Such multiple relationships can quickly diffuse energy that would otherwise be concentrated in the mentoring program.

The research which serves as the basis of this report was conducted in 1986 and 1987 among ministers of a small protestant denomination. Pastors who are entering the ministry are assigned to a more experienced neighboring pastor in a mentoring relationship. A unique feature of this mentoring program is that the two pastors function in independent work sites. These pastors do not share a common work place, nor are they mutually accountable within the same job setting. They each function autonomously and, although the relationship was faciltitated by an outside agent, each pair is relatively free to direct and guide the relationship as they deem appropriate.

In this article we will describe the basic characteristics of this mentoring program and draw some conclusions that might offer direction to adult educators functioning in other contexts where such work-independent mentoring programs are appropriate.

Review of Research Methodogy

The methodology for this research was based on the grounded theory methodology of Glaser and Strauss (1967). Data for this study were collected from personal interviews and demographic information provided by the participants. Sixteen pairs of mentors/proteges were interviewed. The interviews were conducted individually without cross-reference to the interview of the other member of the relationship. The interviews were semi-structured, using planned questions of an open-ended nature.

As the research progressed, the data collection and analysis were divided into two discreet phases. Phase one concentrated on defining the basic descriptors of the mentor, protege, and the relationship itself. Phase one also functioned as a complete field testing of the research and analysis process while still permitting the data collected in phase one to be an integral part of the study. A total of twelve interviews were

completed in phase one. The data were thoroughly analyzed and the reports written before proceeding to phase two of the research. Phase two of the data collection began with the use of an inclusive categorization system designed in phase one by which the responses of the participants were coded for further analysis. This system permitted a more structured interviewing process during phase two. Twenty individuals were interviewed during the second phase. The interview technique was adjusted so that the inquiry was more structured and directed by the interviewer.

The Mentor and Protege

The analysis of the data indicated several qualities which were especially conducive for effective mentoring in independent work sites.

First, an effective mentor is characterized by a willingness to invest in the relationship. The success of this type of mentoring program depends to a high degree on the personal willingness of the mentor to commit himself without the promise of reward or personal gain to the protege. A majority of mentoring programs in industry and education rely on extrinisic motivation to sustain the involvement of the senior partner. The mentoring task becomes part of their job description, or subtle advancement benefits are connected with satisfactory completion of the task. When the mentor is not functioning in the same work context, motivation for involvement must be highly intrinsic and even somewhat altruistic. The mentor must desire deeply to be of service to the protege.

Certain benefits do accrue to the mentor through involvement in the relationship. The data indicate that four benefits were especially noteworthy: friendship, stimulation, generativity, and personal growth. For many of the pastors, the pairing with a younger pastor provided them an opportunity to develop a friendship. Many pastors are lonely people and the emerging friendship was, for some, a significant enough benefit to keep them involved in the program. The stimulation of the younger pastor's new ideas and fresh vision for the profession was also welcomed by the mentors. New perspectives on old problems were always appreciated. A sense of "generativity," being able to pass along a heritage of wisdom, was also a motivation for many mentors. Especially those who were in the last trimester of their careers cited the desire to pass on their accumulated experiences and reflections as an important motivating factor. Personal growth was also important for some. The stimulation and new insights translated for some into new skills for ministry.

A second quality indicated by the data for being an effective mentor was the recognition of one's advanced career status vis a vis the protege. The emphasis is on the word recognition. While the typical mentor should be at least ten years older than the protege, some of the mentors did not view themselves has having advanced in their own career development to the point where they were confident of leading another along that same path. Proteges uniformily expressed a desire for a mentor who was established in the profession and who had "walked down this road before me."

The quality of self-confidence was the third characteristic noted by the proteges of something desirable in a mentor. This person is one who exhibits "personal autnomy," or as Harris defines it, "the capacity to balance and resolve oppposing demands within himself and between himself and

the congregation" (1977:71). Self-confidence in the mentor expressed itself in the ability to use dissonance between the two of them for constructive action, and the self-confident mentor was not threatened by differences between himself and the protege.

The final quality of the effective mentor was that he was able and willing to develop reciprocity in the relationship. As the relationship developed into a more personal, intimate relationship, the mentor must be able to display himself on that personal and intimate level.

The characteristics of the protege parallel and complement those described of the mentor. In addition to those listed above, the protege must exhibit the quality of being a critical learner. The term "critical learner" refers to that capacity to either assimilate and/or adapt the style and prespective of the mentor to the protege's personal needs and situation. While Schmoll (1981) defined one of the characteristics of a mentee (protege) as the willingness to emulate the mentor, the data of this study indicate that the learning that occurred was not a mere repetition of the skills and perspectives of the mentor but a critical assimilation of that which was appropriate to the career and person of the protege.

The Relationship

Several conclusions can be drawn about the nature and development of a satisfactory relationship between the mentor and protege.

One conclusion of the study is that a progression can be detected in those relationships which were judged satisfactory by the participants. The relationship typically progressed from a superior/subordinate relationship to a peer relationship. Many mentors and proteges indicated a growing mutuality or reciprocity in their relationship marked by a decrease in emphasis on identifying resources for the junior partner and an increase in emphasis on the discussion of personal issues. Kram identified a continuum of peer relationships, indicating three progressive stages: informational peer, collegial peer, and special peer (1985:138). The conclusion presented here extends the perspective of Kram by adding the feature that as the relationship develops the parties begin to perceive each other in less hierarchical terms. Disparities in maturity and experience may continue to exist, but they have less impact on the relationship as the trust level increases.

A second, but related, conclusion is the close association between meeting the psychosocial needs of the protege and the career induction and advancement needs. Mentors tended to exhibit a certain pre-disposition toward one or the other of these two functions. Some mentors were more comfortable with the career induction aspects of mentoring. They would draw freely from their experience, engage in problem solving activities or function as a consultant. Other mentors were able to deal with the personal issues associated with the psychosocial development of the young adult. These mentors could deal with such feelings as disappointment, stress, frustration or joy. They were also more intentional in engaging the protege in an examination of his personal motivations for and goals in his career. Figure 1 represents the development of the mentoring style most appropriate for the development of a healthy relationship between the mentor

and the protege. As the relationship begins, emphasis is normally concentrated in quadrant I type activities with a primary focus on career induction issues. The mentor functions as a consultant, resource, or (negatively) boss. Effective mentoring occurs, however, when such quadrant I activities are combined with the psychosocial concerns of quadrant III. The data of the study suggest that there is a natural progression from one form of mentoring style to another, ultimately leading to a cessation of mentoring activities when the relationship either ends or grows into a closer friendship not concerned with mentoring duties.

The third conclusion dealt with the nature of the teaching/ learning process. The learning that occurred as a result of the mentoring relationship functioned at the two highest levels of the experiential taxonomy of Steinaker and Bell (1979), viz., internalization and dissemination. The mentorship relationship encouraged both partners to "internalize" their learnings and to "disseminate" them in a manner peculiar to themselves. But leading a novice pastor through these two highest taxonomic levels of experiential learning requires that the mentor demonstrate a simultaneous and parallel development. The inability of certain mentors to engage in such critical reflection was the point of breakdown in some relationships. Some proteges who had been conditioned by their recent educational experiences were more capable of engaging in a action-reflection mode of learning.

The fourth conclusion focussed on those aspects of the mentoring relationship which were effected by the fact that the partners were functioning in independent work sites. A review of pertinent literature regarding a number of mentoring programs in which the partners are working within the same corporate or institutional setting indicates that, generally speaking, these programs are characterized by the following qualities in contrast to those programs in which the parties are functioning in work contexts independent of each other.

Shared	Independent
hierarchical	non-hierarchical
authoritarian environment	nurturing environment
multi-faceted relationship	simple/focussed relationship
relatively exclusive	usually inclusive
production oriented	growth oriented
intense/daily interaction	relaxed/monthly interaction

The Future of Mentoring

Guidelines for the development of a viable mentoring program are still needed. Such guidelines would be especially helpful in the area of adult and continuing education. The potential of a mentoring program as an integral part of a job re-training process or a literacy program is great. Based on this research, the following should be considered essential to the development of such programs.

1. Select a mentor who exhibits the personal qualities that are necessary to sustain a voluntary relationship. This means that the mentor must be an apt listener, flexible and empathetic.

2. Provide a basic structure for the program while allowing a high degree of flexibility. Instead of attempting to mass produce mentors on a production line, consider each to be a craftsman accorded the freedom to develop the program within certain broadly defined guidelines.

3. Nurture reciprocity in the relationship. Where partners are able to mutually give and receive, the relationship will tend to be stronger and last longer.

4. Minimize the number of roles or functions which the two parties must sustain in their relationship. The more focussed and unencumbered the relationship, the greater will be the likelihood of success.

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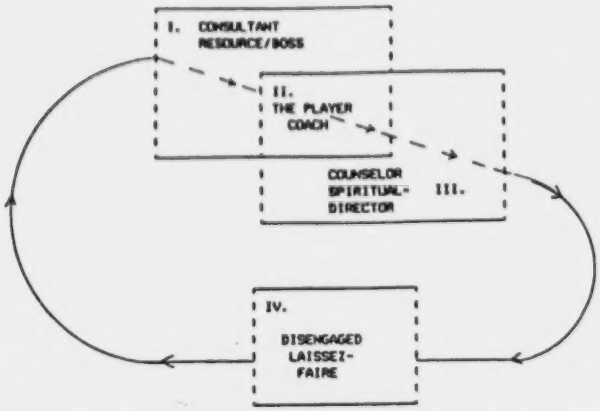
Figure 1

Mentor Leadership Styles Over Time



Reflection and the Problem of Self-Deception in Adult Learning

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The process of reflection is a key component of learning from experience. Through reflective learning, adult learners are assumed to develop critical knowledge both of one's self and of one's society. The purpose of this paper is to question the assumption that reflective activity contributes to the development of self-knowledge. Self-knowledge involves developing more accurate conceptions of reality and reducing the extent to which we act on conceptions of reality which are wrong (false consciousness). These conceptions, however, are greatly influenced by unconscious factors, such as the need for mastery and control, the desire to be taken care of, or the need to identify and rally against an "enemy." Rather than resolving false consciousness, reflective activity may, at times, contribute to it through its reliance on rational, analytic, and problem-solving processes. Research in depth psychology, however, demonstrates that unconscious aspects of false consciousness may be more readily elicited and identified through the use of metaphor, analogy, fantasy, and other forms of "extrarational" expression. Intrapersonal dialogue, which makes use of symbols, images, and feelings, rather than concepts and abstractions, is suggested as a promising means of approach the extrarational in adult learning. Future studies should focus on reducing self-deception and facilitating the development of self-knowledge. Additional studies are needed which focus on how reflective learning and intrapersonal dialogue can be used together in experiential settings.

Reflection and the Problem of Self-Deception in Adult Learning

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A fundamental aim of adult education is to foster the ability in adults to learn from their life experiences. The idea of reflection is viewed as a key element in this process (Cell, 1984; Boyd & Fales, 1983). According to its proponents, the aim of reflective learning is to develop critical knowledge of both self and society (Berlak & Berlak, 1981; Brookfield, 1986; Kemmis, 1985; Mezirow, 1981, 1985). As a result, learners are said to experience enlightenment and emancipation. The purpose of this paper is to examine one aspect of this assertion, that is, the notion that reflective learning develops knowledge of one's self. By self-knowledge I mean the organization and structure of one's conscious and unconscious attitudes, habits, feelings, and desires as they relate to some aspect of one's occupational or personal reality. The development of self-knowledge involves, among other things, overcoming the problem of self-deception (Habermas, 1971) or what Skirbekk (1976), Guess (1981), and others refer to as "false consciousness" (systematically wrong conceptions of reality).

In this paper, reflective learning that aims primarily to develop self-knowledge is referred to as self-reflective learning. I will argue that self-reflective activity helps but does not fully resolve the problem of false consciousness in adult learning. In the paper's first section, I will identify what I consider to be key assumptions that are evident in the literature regarding the aim and processes of reflective learning are identified. In the next section, the perspective of depth psychology is used to demonstrate how facilitating reflective learning based on these assumptions fails to offer a sufficient resolution to the problem of false consciousness. The notion of "intrapersonal dialogue" is then offered as a way of resolving false consciousness that is theoretically and pragmatically more appropriate than self-reflective learning. The ideas presented here are based on work with groups of adult learners who have enrolled in education programs for personal change of some sort, and individuals who work or are preparing to work in some form of helping role. It is within these particular contexts that the following discussion should be understood. Because of limitations of space, the argument presented here represents the framework of a more extensive and thorough argument.

Key Assumptions of Reflective Learning

Broadly defined, reflection refers to a form of response that learners make to some aspect of their everyday life or formal learning experiences. The reflective response involves four phases: 1) Recapturing or describing the experience; 2) Thinking about the experience and deliberating on it within the context of a given purpose, interest, or intent; 3) Interpreting or evaluating the experience within this context (Boud, Keogh, & Walker, 1985); and 4) Undertaking some form of action that is based on and follows from the deliberation and interpretation phases (Kemmis, 1985).

A major aim of self-reflective learning is to make conscious, through phases one and two, some aspect of the learners' experience that was previously unconscious or otherwise not known to them. According to this perspective, self-reflective learners to seek to become aware of the personal and social determinants of consciousness - certain beliefs that they hold about their personal and social worlds (phases one and two). Through phase three, learners determine the extent to which their beliefs represent false consciousness. In phase four, they act on this new level of consciousness by taking control of their lives, rather than allowing themselves to be controlled by factors of which they may be largely unaware (Brookfield, 1986; Kemmis, 1985; Mezirow, 1981; 1985). Thus, the notion of consciousness is a key idea in self-reflective learning.

False consciousness, which many believe to be largely self-imposed (Guess, 1981; Habermas, 1971; Kemmis, 1985), reduces the personal freedom experienced by the individual by producing and reinforcing the very social institutions which keep the individual unfree. Through self-reflection, learners develop an awareness of their false consciousness, which then leads to an unacceptance of these beliefs and a desire to replace them with forms of

consciousness and action that more accurately represent their "true interests" (enlightenment). The knowledge derived from this process involves primarily an increased awareness of the social determinants of consciousness and increased control in one's relationship with the outer world (Boyd & Myers, in press).

The process of reflective learning is characterized by conscious deliberation, cognitive thought, reasoning, analysis, and problem-solving (Brookfield, 1986; Mezirow, 1981, 1985). The power of self-reflection rests with the assumption that individuals, once presented with persuasive evidence and information that false consciousness is contributing to their bondage, will be persuaded to reject their false beliefs. Facilitators of self-reflection are told to engage the learners in thoughtful discussion and examination of the structures of their belief systems and to confront them by pointing out inconsistences or contradictions in how they view the world and how they act on these beliefs (Brookfield, 1986).

Self-Knowledge and False Consciousness

Inherent in the aims and processes of reflective learning is the assumption that consciousness occupies a powerful and central role in the development of self-knowledge. According to this view, self-knowledge is acquired when we are no longer unconsciously influenced by personal and social determinants of consciousness. Consciousness, in other words, is assumed to be the master of our psychic lives. Research in depth psychology, however, suggests that such a belief is an illusion (Skirbekk, 1976). I will briefly review the conclusions from this literature that are salient to the present discussion.

The human psyche is constituted by both conscious and unconscious structures and functions (Jacobi, 1959; Whitmont, 1969). Consciousness, the psychic structure which mediates adaptation to reality (Neumann, 1954), is psychologically determined (Skirbekk, 1976). It is not like an empty bottle that gradually fills from external sources. Rather, consciousness is determined through the unconscious of the psyche transacting with its social and cultural environment. Ego-consciousness mediates this transaction. In other words, consciousness is a symbolic expression of the needs and forces of the unconscious.

Rationality does not assure that consciousness will not be determined by unconscious forces. Despite strict ethical and moral standards, individuals sometimes use "emergency" situations to give voice to the unconscious. The seemingly suspicious and unfeeling reaction of many Americans to the recent downing of an Iranian passenger plane exemplifies the power of the unconscious in our psychic lives. As another example, individuals attempting to bring about specific changes in health related behaviors often know what needs to be done and the consequences of failing to act on this knowledge. None-the-less, many fail to achieve the kind of changes for which they are striving. "Binge eating" is sometimes used to cope with subtle and not so subtle emotional crises. Finally, observations of groups of workers in the health care field further illustrate how unconscious factors shape consciousness even with the best of intentions. The ambiguity and uncertainty involved in helping relationships sometimes elicit fears of failure, incompetence, and lack of efficacy among individuals preparing for these roles. These fears produce varying levels of anxiety in learners. As a result, students may demonstrate increased aggressiveness and hostility towards the patient. These behaviors are often observed even in those students who have received substantial training and feedback in interview techniques.

The conscious ego will interpret these occurrences in the form of explanations and convictions in a way that is morally and ethically acceptable (Skirbekk, 1976). A protective shell is thus formed around those areas where individuals unconsciously perceive themselves as vulnerable. These areas or "complexes" (Jacobi, 1959) are manifest in excessive reactions to certain social situations. Challenging individuals directly through reason or by identifying inconsistencies or contradictions in their beliefs and behaviors will likely result in defensive reactions (rationalizations), which may make it even more difficult to break through the protective "shell." When confronted with the facts of the Iranian tragedy, many Americans persisted in the belief that it was perpetuated by Iran. Their original beliefs remained largely intact. In depth psychology terms, they were probably expressing an unconscious human need for groups and nations to identify and rally against an "enemy" that is perceived to be a threat to them. This was expressed in the explicit belief that Iran is an "evil" nation that threatens American national security and which will stop at almost nothing to achieve its goals. Individuals seeking to change their health related behaviors

find any number of "valid" reasons for justifying noncompliance with prescribed regimens. Health care students will often "rationalize" their aggressiveness and hostility towards patients as caused by the "objective" characteristics of the patients. In an effort to "get rid of the patient," they will sometimes label troublesome patients as "gomers, chronic health care seekers, hypochondriacs, somatizers" - the list could go on. This action allows students to deal with the "problem" without having to deal with the patient. It is more likely, however, that, in the example provided, students are using aggression as a symbolic means of expressing unconscious needs for mastery and control.

Thus, reflective thought does not necessarily contribute to self-knowledge by dispelling false consciousness. At times, it appears that reflection elicits a defensive process of rationalizing the influence of these unconscious factors, thereby actually contributing to false consciousness. There is a second concern, however, regarding the idea that consciousness is master of our psychic lives. In reflective learning, consciousness is viewed as the principal psychic organ for developing self-knowledge. Depth psychology suggests that the development of self-knowledge is more complex, involving a number of unconscious structures, in addition to ego consciousness (Jacobi, 1959; Whitmont, 1969). Ego consciousness mediates reality adaptation, but it is guided and influenced by unconscious structures which are far more powerful. Rather than repositories of undesirable forces, these structures are recognized as legitimate sources of symbolic knowledge which contribute to the growth and development of the whole psyche (Whitmont, 1969).

Intrapersonal Dialogue

Self-knowledge is not achieved solely through the use of cognitive, rational processes, exemplified in the practice of reflection. To adequately overcome the problem of false consciousness in adult learning, it is necessary to utilize "extrarational" sources and processes. These extrarational processes allow for the various unconscious structures of the psyche to more readily communicate with ego consciousness. What these are and how they may best be integrated into the adult learning process remains the focus of much needed research. It is possible, however, to identify some tentative ideas with which we may begin this inquiry. The idea of the "intrapersonal dialogue" (or simply dialogue), based on the work of Boyd & Myers (in press) in transformative education, represents a potentially promising approach to working with the extrarational in adult learning. The notion of dialogue is consistent with the view of the human psyche developed in depth psychology. Dialogue assumes that the human personality is made up of several psychic structures. Metaphorically, there is a need for each of these structures to be talking to each other. Ego-consciousness is one of these structures, but certainly not the most dominant or powerful. The language of this dialogue is often tacit and intuitive and is expressed through symbols, images, and feelings, rather than concepts and other abstractions. In dialogue, emphasis is on synthesis rather than analysis, "seeing" relationships and patterns in one's life and appreciating how the different aspects of one's experience may relate to a greater, transcendent whole. The goal of dialogue is integration of the total psyche. The process is under the control of the unconscious rather than ego-consciousness. In dialogue, the ego needs to be quiet in order for these messages to be heard, rather than struggling for control.

Space does not permit a discussion of specific procedures one may use in implementing intrapersonal dialogue in adult learning, but it is possible to identify several conditions which seem to be necessary for its use. First, there needs to be a recognition and acceptance by both students and facilitators of the value to develop self-knowledge of symbols, feelings, and images, the messages which constitute the language of dialogue. The messages are often subtle and one needs to cultivate a sensitivity to their expressions. Within learning groups, structure and explicit agendas may need to be reduced, in order to allow the extrarational to be heard. In addition, intrapersonal dialogue will frequently precipitate personal and interpersonal conflict. Adult learners and their facilitators need the patience to allow these crises to be worked through satisfactorily. Finally, one should avoid analysis and interpretation of the explicit material derived intrapersonal dialogue. For the most part, the messages from dialogue are understood and have their effect before we even become explicitly aware of their presence in our lives.

Conclusion

The recent emphasis on the importance of reflection in learning from experience will serve to enhance the quality of educational programs based on this approach. There is a danger, however, that over-reliance on self-reflective learning as a process for developing self-knowledge may result in a one-sided and excessively rational view of self-knowledge. Self-reflection does not sufficiently address the power of unconscious, extrarational influences in determining consciousness. For this reason, it fails to adequately address the problem of our tacit ability to systematically misrepresent reality whenever it suits the purposes of the ego. Reflective learning may actually contribute to rather than help resolve the problem of false consciousness in adult learning. Intrapersonal dialogue offers a promising means of allowing adult learners to develop knowledge of the unconscious determinants of their lives by establishing patterns of symbolic communication among various unconscious structures and between these structures and ego-consciousness. The intrapersonal dialogue should complement reflective learning as methods for improving the process of learning from experience. Although I have discussed each of these processes as if they were separate and distinct, it may well be that they are inter-dependent within adult learning. The perspective discussed in this paper should serve to stimulate the study and examination of this and other theoretical and practical questions related to the development of self-knowledge and the resolution of false consciousness in adult education.

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A Contingency Model for Planning Educational Programs

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The involvement of citizens in program development is viewed as desirable by the Cooperative Extension Service. However, contingency theories of planning suggest that there is no one best way to lead groups. Scant research has applied contingency theories to the development of adult education programs.

This research explored the relationship between phases or components of a program, the initiating structure of the program, decision styles, and the outcomes of planning. An ex post facto study design was used.

A contingency theory of planning suggests that the choice of decision making styles depends on the situation. A problem has been to have the tools to define the situation and to understand the relationships between different elements of the program development process. The conceptual framework developed for this study illustrates the relationship between some elements of the program development process. These elements also provide tools for educators to use when they consider how citizens should be involved in program development and what citizens should decide. The tools are program components, a taxonomy of decision styles, the initiating structure of programs, and the expected outcomes of planning.

A Contingency Model for Planning Educational Programs

Research Question

The involvement of citizens in program development is viewed as desirable by the Cooperative Extension Service. However, contingency theories of planning suggest that there is no one best way to lead groups. Scant research has applied contingency theories to the development of adult education programs.

This research explored the following questions:

1. Do the phases or components of a program (need, goals, subject matter, presentation of subject matter, logistics, recruiting an audience, and evaluation) influence decision styles? Decision styles are no decision needed, authoritative, consultative, participative, and delegated.
2. Does the initiating structure of programs influence decision styles? Initiating structures are crisis, problem, known, new, and developmental.
3. Do program components, initiating structures of programs or decision styles influence the outcomes of planning? Outcomes of planning are planning time, satisfaction with the plan and the program, and contribution to the implementation of the program.

Methodology

The research was an ex post facto study design. A multi-stage stratified sampling technique was used. Instruments were developed and tested. Data was collected via telephone interviews with 19 Extension Home Economists and 101 citizens who participated in planning programs. Actual experiences in planning and reactions to hypothetical situations were used. The Friedman, Kruskal-Wallis, and one-way ANOVA were used to analyze the data.

Applications of Findings to Practice

A contingency theory of planning suggests that the choice of decision making styles depends on the situation. A problem has been to have the tools to define the situation and to understand the relationships between different elements of the program development process. The conceptual framework developed for this study illustrates the relationship between some elements of the program development process. These elements also provide tools for educators to use when they consider how citizens should be involved in program development and what citizens should decide. The tools are program components, a taxonomy of decision styles, the initiating structure of programs, and the expected outcomes of planning.

Program Components

Adult educators have identified a number of phases for components of program development. Many of these schemes are based on Tyler's (1950) notion of four phases of program development. However, Drenth et al (1979) found that the same decision style may not be used for determining plans for each phase or component of program development.

The findings of this study show that in some cases the same decision style is used for all program components, and in other cases a variety of decision styles are used for determining different program components. This suggests that the conditions which surround a specific program component may influence the choice of a decision style.

Implications for practice: Program development has often been used as a global term. However, if citizens are involved in program development, adult educators need to recognize that decisions need to be made about several parts or components of a program. Boyle (1981) noted that sometimes confusion results because planning groups may not be clear about their purpose.

Using the concept of program components as a tool can clarify the tasks which a planning group may need to accomplish. As used in this study, program components are designed to answer specific questions. The questions are as follows:

-Need: Why the program is being developed?
-Goal: What is the program to accomplish?
-Subject matter: What information is to be presented in the program?
-Presentation of subject matter: Who are the instructors or teachers, what methods, and educational materials are to be used for the program?
-Logistics: When and where is the program to be held?
-Recruiting the audience: What plans are needed to recruit an audience?
-Evaluation: How will it be determined if the program accomplished what it planned to do?

A Taxonomy of Decision Styles

A number of researchers in a variety of fields and situations have identified taxonomies of decision styles (Lewin, Lippit, and White, 1939; Likert, 1967; Heller, 1976; Vroom and Yetton, 1973). The findings of this study show that authoritative, consultative, and participatory decision styles are used in decision making. The study also indicates there are instances when no decision needs to be made and when the adult educator is involved in a planning situation with planning group members of equal stature.

Implications for practice: Citizen involvement has often been used as a global term. Thus, the notion of different decision styles for program components representing various situations may not be consciously considered when implementing the program development process. Secondly, terms like "authoritative" and "participatory" are often associated with an overall leadership style, rather than as a means of making a specific decision about a program. Those responsible for program development may not have the knowledge to distinguish between different decision styles. Also, some may think that having a group meet about a program may be participatory decision making, when in fact an authoritative or consultative decision style was actually used. However, if citizens are involved in program development, there are several decision styles or ways to make decisions about program components. Using the concept of decision styles as a tool can clarify how decisions might be made about program components.

The decision styles are as follows:

-Self-evident: The decision is obvious.
-Tradition: The decision was made when planning prior programs.
-Authoritative I: No detailed information about the decision is presented to the planning group.
-Authoritative II: The planning group is told what the decision is and is given a chance to ask questions.
-Consultative I: The planning group is asked what the decision should be and their ideas may be used.
-Consultative II: The planning group is presented with alternatives and selects one.
-Participatory: Together, the planning group and the adult educator make the decision.
-Participatory II: The adult educator has equal stature with members of the planning group. The planning group with the adult educator as a member makes the decision.
-Delegated: The planning group, without the adult educator, makes the decision.

Occasionally, no decision needs to be made about a particular program component, either because the decision is self-evident or has been determined by

tradition. Thus, it needs to be recognized that decision making is not always required for all seven program components. The positive relationship of this decision style with satisfaction with the plan and the program and contribution to the implementation of the program suggests that planning groups appreciate the opportunity to discuss what is worthwhile and necessary.

Initiating Structure of the Program

Research by Dohr and Finley (1979) identified and defined six approaches to planning. These approaches identify aspects of the planning situation. Mintzburg et al. (1976) in a study of decision processes categorized decisions along a continuum by the stimuli that evoked the decision. These two studies reached similar conclusions regarding decision processes or programs and their characteristics.

Implications for practice: There are several program triggers or initiating structures which define the type of program being planned. These initiating structures, which define the program situation, tend to influence the decision styles which are used for determining the various program components. If adult educators use these initiating structures as a tool for identifying a particular planning situation, they will be more likely to select decision styles for program components which will have the desired outcomes of planning.

The initiating structures are as follows:

-**Crisis**. An immediate problem is known and time is of the essence.

-**Specific Problem**. A specific situation is readily identified by the concern of citizens and/or objective data.

-**Known Opportunity**. A program structure and an on-going program exist. Another program is planned to meet the expectations of a continuing program.

-**New Opportunity**. A previously non-existing program opportunity presents itself; an institution, agency, or organization specifically invites the adult educator to participate in a program.

-**Developmental**. A vague notion that a problem exists initiates the action of a planning group to search and explore the problem and the potential for a program. A program results from the exploration.

Influence of Initiating Structures on Decision Styles for Program Components

Dohr and Finley (1979) found that different initiating structures used different forms of citizen involvement. The findings of this study revealed that certain patterns of decision styles emerged for program components according to the initiating structure of programs. Decision styles for crisis programs tended to be authoritative; for problem, known and new programs, a mixture of decision styles was used; and participatory decision styles tended to be associated with developmental programs.

Implications for practice: There tends to be a continuum of initiating structures. At one end are crisis programs. These are programs for which immediate action is needed; thus, an authoritative decision style is most likely to be associated with this type of program. However, it may be that no decision is needed for a particular program component, or a consultative decision style may be appropriate for some program components.

At the other end of the continuum are developmental programs. These are programs that originate with a vague idea, time is not critical, and there is an opportunity to enhance a situation. Thus, a tendency toward a participatory decision style prevails. The problem, known and new programs fall in between the previous two in that some aspects of the program are known by either past experiences, past programs, objective data, or conditions set by other forces. These are programs for which the need is fairly easily identified and for which there is some community

concern. Thus, while decisions need to be made about at least some program components, neither the urgency of crisis programs nor the vagueness of developmental programs influences the program development process. Thus, these intermediate initiating structures offer more opportunity to consider and base decision styles on the desired outcomes of planning.

If adult educators recognize the above conditions, then they might choose an authoritative decision style for determining program components for a crisis program and participatory decision styles for developmental programs. The desired outcomes of planning and conditions surrounding a particular planning situation might influence the choice of decision styles for program components for problem, known and new programs.

Outcomes of Planning

The findings of this study show that generally participatory decision making requires more time than an authoritative or consultative decision style.

The work of several researchers (Heller, 1976; Miles, 1978; and Vroom and Yetton, 1973) suggests that the use of citizens' knowledge, experiences, and insight in decision making contributes to the quality of the plan. Thus, participatory decision making should enhance citizen satisfaction with the quality of the plan and the program.

Based on the findings of this study, it can be concluded that greater satisfaction with the plan and the program is associated with participatory planning and with situations where no decision needed to be made. Less satisfaction is associated with an authoritative or consultative decision style.

Among the reasons for involving citizens in the program development process are to obtain their support of the program and to assist in its implementation. Based on the findings of this study, it can be concluded that greater contribution to the implementation of the program is associated with participatory planning and with situations where no decisions needed to be made. Less contribution is associated with an authoritative or consultative decision style.

Implications for practice: A great amount of time spent planning is more likely to be associated with a participatory decision style than with authoritative or consultative decision styles. However, an equal amount of time may not be spent on determining all program components. When a participatory decision style is used for determining some program components and the no decision needed category is used for other program components, there can still be considerable investment of time.

If time is not of the essence, as for all programs except crisis programs, an investment of time in planning is likely to result in greater satisfaction and contribution to the implementation of the program.

The satisfaction and contribution to the implementation of the program are more likely to be associated with a participatory decision style than with an authoritative or consultative decision style.

Also, when the no decision category is used for particular program components, there is likely to be greater satisfaction and contribution than when an authoritative or consultative decision style is used.

If adult educators are concerned with how members of citizen planning groups perceive the quality of the plan and the program, and if they desire support for and assistance with implementing the program, then a participatory decision style is more appropriate than an authoritative or consultative decision style. Secondly, if these factors are a concern, then adults educators need to recognize when a decision is self-evident or has previously been determined about a particular program component and not spend time trying to make such a decision.

A Conceptual Framework

Based on the findings of this study, it appears that the identification of the initiating structure of a program may provide direction on how a citizen planning group might be involved in program development. The findings suggest that there are at least three frameworks for citizen involvement. The first framework relates to crisis programs, the second to developmental programs, and the third to problem, known and new programs.

Crisis Programs: For this initiating structure, a planning group is not likely to be involved, an authoritative decision style is most likely to be used for all seven program components (although the no decision needed or consultative decision style may be appropriate). The outcomes of planning for this initiating structure were not identified in this study.

Developmental Programs: The initiating structure influences the reasons for citizen involvement when developmental programs are planned. This is a new program, based on a vague notion that a program is needed. Citizens are involved because information is needed and to have their assistance in supporting the program and their help with implementing it, thus a participatory decision style is likely to be used. The outcomes of this decision style are likely to be satisfaction, contribution to the implementation of the program, and an investment of time.

Problem, Known and New Programs: The adult educator needs to determine why he or she is involving a planning group and what outcomes are expected from a planning effort. The reasons for involvement influence the choice of decision styles which, in turn, influence the outcomes of planning. If an adult educator does not need information, satisfaction with the quality of the plan and the program, or support for and assistance with the implementation of the program, then an authoritative or consultative decision style is appropriate; and the outcome will be a savings of planning time. If information, satisfaction, and contribution are needed, a participatory decision style is appropriate. If information is not needed but satisfaction and contribution are, the no decision needed category is appropriate. These decision styles will result in satisfaction, contribution, and an investment of planning time.

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ADULT HIGH SCHOOL NONCOMPLETERS RECEIVING GENERAL ASSISTANCE: ANALYSIS ON THE BASIS OF REFERENCE GROUP THEORY

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ABSTRACT

This study examines the linkage between illiteracy and unemployment by 1) identifying the similarities and dissimilarities within a random sample of 2,000 General Assistance recipients on the basis of high school completion and 2) analyzing those characteristics using reference group theory. Although both high school completers and noncompleters participated in educational activities at the same level and were equally willing to leave General Assistance for a job paying $225, these two groups had significantly different experiences in educational attainment, other schooling, employment prior to receiving assistance, length of time receiving General Assistance, and family history of assistance. Significant differences between completers and noncompleters were also found in their attitudes toward their own basic skill proficiency, in their perception that their inability to obtain employment was due to their lack of education, and in their belief that the more education a person has, the better job that person gets. The data raise important questions about the respective influences of normative and comparative reference groups.

Adult High School Noncompleters Receiving General Assistance: Analysis on the Basis of Reference Group Theory

Public attention is currently being directed toward alleviating the twin problems of unemployment and illiteracy experienced by a significant portion of the population. Both Eyster (Hunter and Harmon, 1985) and Martin (1987) have described one of the subgroups within the adult high school noncompleter population as possessing multiple deprivations including poverty and relying on public assistance for financial support. The combination of school noncompletion with unemployment epitomizes in the public mind the compounded failures of school and work. It is this stigmatized view which is articulated in the Adult Education Act where the purpose of basic education for adults is described as enabling all adults to become "more employable, productive, and responsible citizens" (Adult Education Act, Section 302, PL 91-230).

This study examines the linkage between illiteracy and unemployment by analyzing a subpopulation receiving public assistance. Its objectives are 1) to identify the similarities and dissimilarities within a sample of General Assistance recipients on the basis of high school completion; and 2) to analyze those characteristics of the sample using reference group theory.

Reference Groups

The concept of a reference group is derived from the notion that "people's attitudes, aspirations and grievances largely depend on the frame of reference within which they are conceived" (Runciman, 1966, p. 9). According to Shibutani (1955), commonly shared outlooks of life, work, and paths to success are derived from reference group perspectives. They have been described as a context for psycho-social development and a source for internalized values. Smith claimed that reference groups "constitute an organized conception of what is both plausible and possible in life" (1979, p. 480).

A normative reference group is one of which a person is a member and from which a person derives standards, attitudes, and values. A comparative reference group is a group of which a person is not a member and whose situation or attributes a person contrasts with his or her own. The comparative reference group provides a basis for "anticipatory socialization" (Merton, 1957, p. 265), that is, taking on the values of a non-member group to which one aspires, and for "relative deprivation," that is, deriving discontent by comparing oneself with more prosperous members of another group (Runciman, 1966, p. 9). Merton includes membership and non-membership groups, collectivities, and social categories as reference groups (1957, p. 300).

Although it is possible to consider the values or attitudes of a particular socio-economic class or stratum (a social category) as providing such a frame of reference, simultaneous membership in multiple reference groups and disagreement over the source of values and attitudes make the influence of any particular reference group difficult to determine. For example, Hyman, in an effort to explain the lack of mobility from lower to middle or upper strata, hypothesized that "a system of beliefs or values <u>within</u> [italics added] the lower classes" is the intervening variable which mediates the relationship between the low position and the lack of upward mobility (1966, p. 488). In

sharp contrast, Freire described the oppressed as "having internalized the image of the oppressor and adopted his guidelines" (1970, p. 31).

Gooderham (1987) used reference group theory as a tool by which to interpret participation in a voluntary adult education program. Although a higher secondary education program for adults provided little immediate job-related benefit, it did convey future advantages by leading to higher education and subsequently to middle class careers. Gooderham found that participation was partially the result of the socio-cultural values of the normative reference group which were in accord with the values implicit in a program of study and partially the result of the socio-economic potential which appeals to those who compare themselves with a middle-class reference group.

Data Source and Methodology

Information was gathered from 2,000 General Assistance recipients in an urban midwestern county during a two-month period, a sample drawn randomly from a population of 7,000 able-bodied persons receiving General Assistance at that time. General Assistance is a county-financed program which provides for needy persons who are ineligible for federal and state assistance programs. Recipients are required to reside in a county for at least 60 consecutive days prior to application. A single eligible applicant is entitled to a monthly basic need allowance of $97 and a shelter allowance of up to $88 (What is General Assistance and Who is it for?).

Interviews conducted by the Urban Research Center at the University of Wisconsin - Milwaukee focused on their educational, literacy, employment, and social characteristics; in addition, the Wide Range Achievement Test (WRAT) was administered to each subject. The Chi Square statistic was used to determine the significance of differences and the Cramer's V statistic was used to measure the strength of association between the high school completion variable and selected other variables using nominal measures. Analysis of variance was used to measure statistically significant differences between completers and noncompleters on variables using interval measures.

Twenty eight variables describing attitudes and experiences relating to education, employment, and assistance were analyzed. Of these variables, 18 revealed statistically significant differences at the $p < .05$ level when analyzed on the basis of high school completion.

Findings

The Sample. A profile of this sample of the general assistance population indicated the average age was 30 and 82 percent were male. Nearly 14 percent of the population was white, 81 percent black, and 4.3 percent Hispanic. Over 73 percent of the sample had never married, 21 percent were divorced or separated, and 2.3 percent were married and living with their spouse. Over 35 percent had been born in the county, 69 percent had lived in the county three or more years, and 27 percent had lived at their present address three or more years. Over 95 percent rented their place of residence, which for 38 percent was an apartment, 25 percent a house, and 27 percent a duplex. Sixty percent lived alone, 21 percent with relatives and 16 percent with friends. Twenty-four percent of those relatives and friends also received financial

assistance. Over half (56.1 percent) of the subjects had not completed high school and 43.6 percent had a high school diploma or a GED certificate.

Education. On the basis of a comparison between high school completers and noncompleters, statistically significant differences emerged: the latter were more likely to have attended school elsewhere than in the state in which the interview took place. Completers were nearly twice as likely to have participated in schooling other than elementary and secondary school such as job skill training or college as were noncompleters. Completers scored an average of 78.36 on the WRAT test and noncompleters scored 59.46. Identical percentages of completers and noncompleters (7.7 percent) indicated they were currently participating in educational activities. Of those participating in training programs, noncompleters were more likely than completers to be taught how to keep a job, that is, being on time, what to wear, etc. However, for other aspects of job training, such as instruction in basic skills and retention and in employment following training, there were no significant differences between completers and noncompleters.

Attitude toward Education. Noncompleters were more convinced than completers that "the more education a person has, the better the job he or she gets." However, no significant difference existed between completers and noncompleters who believed education was the key to a good job about their intent to continue their education; approximately 86% of both groups expressed a willingness to attend night school or continue their education some other way. Of these 79% of both groups expected to continue their education "in the near future." In contrast to the greater level of faith in education on the part of the noncompleters, one may observe similar levels of intent with regard to participation in educational activities on the part of both groups.

Self-Evaluation. Significant differences were evident between high school completers and noncompleters in their estimation of the impact of their basic skills on their employment and on the evaluation of their own reading competence. Interviewees indicated they had trouble finding a job or on a job with basic skills in the following proportions:

Reading - noncompleters 17.9 percent, completers 2.6 percent;
Writing - noncompleters 12.5 percent, completers 1.5 percent; and
Math - noncompleters 16.9 percent, completers 3.8 percent.

However, noncompleters (3.7 percent) and completers (3.2 percent) responded similarly to the question whether they had trouble finding a job or on a job with getting along with people.

When asked to evaluate their own reading ability, 31.5 percent of noncompleters rated themselves good or excellent compared with 65.2 percent of the completers. Over 31.2 percent of the noncompleters and 20.6 percent of the completers said they lacked the education or training to qualify for the kind of work they really wanted.

Work Experience. High school completers differed from noncompleters in their employment history: completers (82.2 percent) were more likely to have had a paying job than the noncompleters (75.5 percent). Noncompleters were also distinguished from completers regarding the kinds of jobs they had held.

Although the largest numbers of both completers and noncompleters were employed in building and related service occupations, food and beverage preparation and service occupations, and packaging and materials handling occupations, a smaller proportion of completers were employed in these occupations, indicating that completers were employed in a wider range of occupational categories than were noncompleters. This finding equally was true when data were analyzed describing both "last job" and "job before last." The average weekly of completers from their last job ($187.57) was significantly different from that of the noncompleters ($182.19).

However, those completers and noncompleters who had been employed at a paying job were similar in the likelihood that they had a job employing them for 35 hours per week or that they were employed on their last job for three or more years. Noncompleters were more likely to have been laid off or fired from their last job than completers. Twice as many noncompleters as completers were fired for fighting on the job.

Attitude Toward Employment. Noncompleters differed from completers in their reasons for going without employment for so long: greater numbers of noncompleters believed that they could not find a job and that there were no jobs available. However, both groups said they would leave general assistance for a job paying $225 a month.

Benefits. Noncompleters received general assistance an average of 1.3 years compared to completers who received general assistance an average of 1 year. Completers were more likely to have previously received income from paid jobs than noncompleters, and noncompleters (29.32 percent) were more likely than completers (21 percent) to have been members of a family receiving AFDC, food stamps, or general assistance when they were under 18 years of age.

Discussion

The adult education literature is replete with studies which seek to understand participation and retention in educational activities on the basis of a range of discrete sociological and psychological characteristics. Reference group theory adds to this understanding in a significant way by focusing on how persons are influenced by normative groups and comparative groups. In this instance, the model aids in understanding the assistance-receiving adult high school noncompleters both as a distinct subpopulation with their own values, as part of a larger assistance-receiving population, and as a group who compare themselves with persons who are educated and employed.

The presence of a single reference group among the General Assistance recipients may be inferred from the range of employment and educational values for which no significant difference was found between high school completers and noncompleters. Completers and noncompleters participated in educational activities at the same level (7.7%) at the time of the interview. Those completers and noncompleters who believed that education is the key to a good job were equally likely to say they intended to further their education. Similarly, those completers and noncompleters who had been employed in paying jobs were equally likely to have been employed 35 hours a week and to have held that job for 3 or more years. Both completers and noncompleters said

they were willing to leave General Assistance for a position paying $225 per week. Neither had problems with other people in getting or retaining a job, both received the same training in basic skills and job retention, and similar proportions of both groups got jobs after training. Although completers and noncompleters participated in the same experience of unemployment and receiving general assistance, there seems to be limited commonality in the values which they articulate.

The differences between completers and noncompleters among General Assistance recipients seem to suggest the presence of two reference groups. Completers and the noncompleters had significantly different experiences in educational attainment, other schooling, employment prior to receiving assistance, average pay, length of time receiving General Assistance, and a family history of assistance. These differences in experience were accompanied by significant differences in attitudes: noncompleters estimated their own reading skill and their use of job-related basic skills lower than completers, and were twice as likely to attribute their inability to secure employment to their own lack of education. Noncompleters were also more likely to believe that the more education a person has, the better job that person gets.

The different behaviors, experiences, and attitudes of the two groups suggest the presence of different reference groups within a single social category of General Assistance recipients. What is less clear is whether the stronger sense of faith in education despite evidence to the contrary (low participation, low likelihood of getting a job for which one is trained) represents the value of the noncompleter reference group or is the result of a comparison of persons with a very low level of education with those whose educational level has led to stable employment. Is the reference group a normative group whose own belief system reduces the likelihood of individual advancement (Hyman, 1966), or a comparative group such as the middle class whose values have been internalized by these unemployed high school noncompleters (Freire, 1970)? Is this the population described by Freire (1970, p. 32), "They are at one and the same time themselves and the oppressor whose consciousness they have internalized."

Application to Practice

One hears from the subjects in this study a testimony that poor literacy skills inhibit getting and keeping jobs, a perception that level of education and quality of job are closely related, and a verbal willingness and expectation to continue their education. But one also observes a low level of participation in educational activities, longterm unemployment, and family histories of dependence on public assistance. The critical issue arising from these data concerns the respective influences of multiple reference groups: the culture and values of a lower socio-economic strata and of a middle-class strata and the culture and values of high school noncompleters and completers. Although additional research is needed to measure the influence of these reference groups, these findings suggest that practitioners may be aided in their work with persons of limited educational attainment or low socioeconomic status by increasing the understandings of both practitioners and students of the value and belief systems which influence behavior.

A reference list will be supplied upon request.

Is A Learning Style - Personality Type Relationship Characteristic of Adult Learners?

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Abstract

Adult educators have begun to give careful attention to learning styles in an effort to improve the learning experience. This study examined the relationship between preferred learning styles (based on Kolb's Inventory) and personality types (based on the Performax Personality Profile) among traditional college age students and adult learners. Findings indicate a strong parallel between styles and types as follows: Dominant personalities prefer converger learning style, Influencers prefer accommodator style, Steadiness personalities prefer diverger style, and Compliants prefer the assimilator style. Age was a significant factor in influencing learning style preference whereas gender and occupation were not statistically significant factors. Implications discussed include increasing the awareness of student personality types and how these relate to learning style, and encouraging learners to accept more of the responsibility for implementing this information in their learning experiences. Traditional age college students share most of the characteristics of adult learners examined in this study: Learners exist in all four learning styles at all ages and these have a strong parallel to personality type. Longitudinal studies were suggested for further research on learning style preference and gender effects.

Is A Learning Style - Personality Type Relationship Characteristic of Adult Learners?

The importance of learning style preference is a concept that has begun to receive considerable attention in the 1980's among adult educators. As the number of adult learners has greatly increased, efforts have been made to find ways to meet the widely varying needs of the adult learners. Several studies about learning style preferences and how they relate to academic success, to teaching style, to subject content area, to cognitive development, and to personality among adult learners have been conducted(Birkey, 1984; Conti, 1985; Cross, 1981; Messick, 1984; Moore, 1982; and Smith, 1982). In most of the research reviewed there was an overwhelming consensus that individuals can learn more effectively when proper attention has been given to their preferred style of learning. A number of researchers have recognized that learning styles are relatively stable, and are related to personality characteristics as well. The present study explored the relationship between learning style preferences and personality type among both adult learners and traditional students. An underlying purpose of the study was to expand the understanding of how adults learn in order to facilitate both the adult learner and the adult educator in making learning experiences more effective.

Summary of the Study

Subjects selected for this study were 221 undergraduate students ages 18-22 enrolled at Marion College and 253 adult learners ages 26-56 enrolled in Marion College's Leadership Education for Adult Professionals (LEAP) program. Kolb's Learning Style Inventory (LSI) was self-administered to determine learning style preferences. Learners were identified as preferring one of four styles: converger, accommodator, diverger, or assimilator. The Performax Personality Profile (DISC) was self-administered to identify each individual's personality type as one of four predominant ways of interacting with the environment: dominance, influencer, steadiness, or compliance. The D Dominance - personality style is one that the emphasis is on shaping one's environment by overcoming opposition in order to accomplish results; a leader, decision-maker. The I Influencing - personality style is one that the emphasis is on shaping one's environment by bringing others into alignment in order to accomplish results; an entertainer. The S Steadiness - personality style is one that the emphasis is on cooperation with others in order to carry out a task; patient and loyal worker. The C Compliance-personality style is one that the emphasis is on working within existing circumstances in ways that promote quality of service or in products; gives attention to accurate details and standards. The relationships of age and

gender to learning style preferences were also considered.

Findings

A multivariate analysis of the data revealed a strong predictive relationship ($p = .000$) between learning style preference and personality type among learners of all age groups. Dominant personality types preferred the converger learning style; influencer personality types; preferred the accommodator learning style; steadiness personality types preferred the diverger learning style; and compliant personality types preferred the assimilator learning style.

The overall age effect was significant at the .02 level of confidence. The marginal means calculated for the learning style x age factor indicated the LSI thinking - feeling factor (AE-CE) was the only specific factor that predictably varied by age groups. This implied that young adults (ages 26-37) preferred abstract conceptualization over concrete experiences as a learning approach, whereas traditional students and older adults preferred concrete experiences.

A chi-square analysis revealed a significant distribution of learning style preferences among adult learners and traditional students. The number of accommodators was larger among adult learners than any other style, but all styles were represented. The spread was more even overall among traditional students. Sixty-seven percent of traditional learners showed a preference for concrete experience (either accommodator or diverger). These findings are in conflict with the Dorsey-Pierson (1984) study which indicated adults past age 33 prefer the accomodator learning style.

Gender was not found to be a significant predictor of learning style preference. There was, however, a nearly significant gender effect on the thinking-feeling (AC-CE) scale of the LSI, suggesting a female preference for feeling and a masculine preference for thinking.

To the extent that participants in this study were representative of learners in general, the following implications appear warranted:

1. Since students of all ages were represented in all four learning style categories, educators should be prepared to be flexible in teaching styles in order to meet varying individual learner needs.

2. Learners should be given opportunities to expand their learning style range, to move through all four stages of Kolb's learning cycle.

3. An awareness of a students personality type may enhance a teacher's understanding of the students learning needs. An understanding of personality type may also enhance interpersonal relationships both in and outside of the classroom.

4. Students should be assisted in recognizing and understanding their own personality type and how it relates to their learning and work experiences. This understanding should facilitate lifelong learning for all individuals.

As Dixon (1985) and Bonham (1988a) have argued, all of the burden for implementing learning style information should not fall solely on the teachers. Each learner is a complex individual. While educators indeed need to provide a facilitative environment for learning, the individual adult learner can and should assume some of the responsibility for understanding themselves and how they can adjust and learn more effectively. This understanding will benefit the learner both inside and outside the classroom. An awareness of personality type can also enhance interpersonal relationships at work, at home, and in our communities. Only a small portion of an adult's lifetime learning experiences occur in a formal classroom. Individuals should understand their own personality type and learning style in order to be able to adapt to and create environments in which their learning can be optimized.

Suggestions for further study.

1. This research indicated an age effect on learning style preference that could be pursued further by longitudinal studies.

2. The nearly significant gender effect on the thinking-feeling (AC-CE) factor of the LSI could be studied further.

3. A replication of this study using GED students or students enrolled in occupational skill classes might clarify some of the discrepencies identified between this research and the Dorsey and Pierson (1984) study.

4. Although learning theorists have claimed that adult learners can adapt to new learning styles, research has not yet demonstrated that function to have successfully occurred as a result of adult learning experiences. Further research might investigate whether adult learning style preferences remain stable over time or are modified by the educational environment.

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COMMUNITY SERVICE BY FIRST OFFENDERS: ADULT DEVELOPMENT THROUGH SYMBOLIC RESTITUTION

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Community service by offenders is a sanction often required at various stages in the criminal justice system. The author argues that community service in pre-trial diversion is a means of personal growth and development. Community service, in this study, is approached from an adult learning and development perspective. The purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of community service work on ego identity change in a sample of first offenders (i.e., defendants) under a deferred prosecution contract. Using the conceptual framework of Erik Erikson's theory of psycho-social development, data was collected on ego identity resolution of the participant before and after the community service experience to determine the impact on ego identity change. Content analysis procedures were used to test the research conjecture. "Real life" cases provided descriptive data on outcomes regarding offender attitude and behavior change as the result of learning through the community service intervention. Community service satisfaction data were correlated with impact on ego identity scores derived from the interview data using the Pearson product-moment coefficient. Preliminary data analysis shows that a moderately significant negative correlation (r= -.52) exists between satisfaction with the community service and change in ego stage resolution. No significant relationship (r= -.21) was found between satisfaction with the community service experience and change in the strength of ego stage resolution.

COMMUNITY SERVICE BY FIRST OFFENDERS; ADULT DEVELOPMENT THROUGH SYMBOLIC RESTITUTION

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of community service work on ego identity change in a sample of twenty-five first offenders (i.e., defendants) under deferred prosecution contract. The sanction of community service is viewed as a form of symbolic restitution whereby the offender provides services to the community for the "general community good."

Defendants in the study were referred to public and private organizations to serve as "volunteers" for a predetermined number of community service hours based on the severity of the criminal offense. Defendants were supervised by volunteer agency personnel during their community service experience. A goal of community service is the personal development of the adult offender through positive interaction with society. Often, as a result of the community service experience, defendants learn more about themselves as people and realize their potential as human beings. (Challeen, 1980).

This study was designed to test the hypothesis that the more positive the quality of the community service experience as perceived by, both, the defendant and the volunteer supervisor, the greater the impact on the defendant's ego identity. Using the conceptual framework of Erik Erikson's eight stages of ego development, (1963) data was collected on ego identity resolution of the participant before and after the community service experience to determine the impact on ego identity change.

The author argues that community service experience affects the development of the offender's ego identity. Erikson, in his theory of personality development, stresses the psychosocial nature of identity formation and establishes the ego as an integral component in the development of the human personality. Erikson posits the existence of an epigenetic set of eight crises through which an individual progresses from birth to death. There is an inter-play between these crises and the social-cultural milieu. The individual, in seeking solutions to these crises in his social-cultural milieu, comes to define his own identity (Boyd, 1974:13).

Method

Structured interviews were held before and after the community service experience. Content analysis procedures were used to analyze the resulting transcripts. Content analysis, the extraction of thematic data from various forms of communication, is a powerful methodology (Berelson, 1952). Content analysis research, is concerned with the explanation of the status of some phenomenon at a particular time or its development over a period of time.

The application of content analysis in this study enabled the researcher to gain insight into the complex, idiosyncratic nature of first offenders as they faced their involvement in the process of deferred prosecution and the performance of community service work. Listening to the participant's own words, and reviewing the content of the interviews was the best way to understand the defendant's attitudes, values, and beliefs, as they reflect ego stage resolution. This allowed the researcher to develop in-depth, "real life" cases providing descriptive data on outcomes regarding offender attitude and behavior change as the result of learning through the community service intervention.

A combination of interview schedules and a written evaluation schedules

and evaluation instruments were constructed and pilot tested. The interview schedules were used to determine the defendant's psychosocial issues and concerns as they reflected impact on ego identity, and to obtain the level of satisfaction pertaining to the quality of the community service experience. The written evaluation instrument was used to determine the volunteer supervisor's level of satisfaction with regards to the quality of the defendant's community service experience.

Impact on ego identity (i.e., any positive or negative change in ego identity) was measured by two sets of scores; (a) comparing the pre and post ego resolution scores; and, (b) comparing pre and post strength of ego resolution scores. The change in ego stage resolution score (Y1) was calculated by dividing the number corresponding to the "final agreement stage" (i.e., the last stage where evidence of ego resolution activity was found) into the number of ego stages experiencing change in resolution. The change in strength of ego stage resolution (Y2) score was calculated by dividing the total number of "difference" points in the strength of ego resolution scores from the pre to the post test, by the highest possible number of "difference" points (i.e., the number of the "final agreement stage" multiplied by six - the highest number of points possible for change in strength of ego stage resolution).

The level of satisfaction score (X) (i.e., perceived quality of the community service experience) was determined by defendant and volunteer supervisor responses to questions regarding ten dimensions of a positive community service experience. A 6-point Likert scale was used to rate defendant level of satisfaction along each dimension. The highest possible satisfaction score for each dimension was 6 points. A satisfaction rating of 4 and above was considered positive. A score of less than 4 was considered negative.

Volunteer supervisors used a 4-point Likert scale to rate the defendant's performance of community along the same ten dimensions. The highest possible supervisor satisfaction rating for each dimension was 4 points. The same ratio to determine a positive experience was used for the volunteer supervisor and defendant satisfaction ratings. This yielded 2.7 as the minimum positive satisfaction rating. A score of 2.6 or below was considered a negative perception of community service.

The satisfaction score was calculated by a three step process. First, the defendant and volunteer supervisor satisfaction ratings for each of the dimensions were assigned a score. A positive satisfaction rating was given a score of one and a negative satisfaction rating was given a score of zero. The "combined satisfaction score" for each dimension was, then, calculated by multiplying the defendant satisfaction score by the supervisor satisfaction score. The ten "combined satisfaction scores" for each defendant were added to obtain a "total combined satisfaction score" (X).

Subjects

The research setting for this study was a deferred prosecution program located in a county in south central Wisconsin known as "Lake" county. The investigator was the Community Service-Volunteer Coordinator for the deferred prosecution program. Data were collected during a thirteen month period from March, 1985 to April, 1986.

Research participants were selected from the population of first offenders referred to the deferred prosecution program through the local State prosecutor's office and law enforcement agencies. First offenders diverted into the deferred prosecution program had been arrested for misdemeanor, and, on occasion, felony offenses. First offenders,

specifically, asked to participant in the study were those who had restitution, in the form of community service, stipulated in their deferred prosecution contract.

The researcher reviewed community service program statistics from 1983-84, the two years prior to the study, to determine the most common characteristics of a first offender performing community service work. Misdemeanors constituted 98 per cent of the reported offenses. Retail theft, theft, criminal damage to property, disorderly conduct, battery, and obstructing an officer were the most commonly cited offenses. The review of statistics also found that the majority of defendants performing community service were adult (i.e., 18 years and older) males, who were "Lake" county residents. The final sample of defendants selected were adult male defendants, who were not repeat offenders or readmittances, but who met the criteria of residing in "Lake" county and had been criminally charged with either retail theft, theft, criminal damage, battery, disorderly conduct, or obstructing.

In the sample selection process, a grand total of 67 defendants were asked to participate in the research study. Thirteen refused to participate when asked. Seven defendants initially agreed to participate but then did not appear for their scheduled pre-community service interview. Nine completed the pre-community service interview but were sent back to court prior to the completion of community service hours. Ten defendants completed the pre-community service interview but were not asked to do the post-community service interview as the initial sample size of 28 had been reached.

The final number of 28 was then reduced to 25. Three of the defendants originally included in the sample had to be dropped. One defendant requested that his case be sent back to court. The second defendant was removed from the community service program to concentrate on drug treatment and rehabilitation. A third research participant was dropped when his pre-community service interview tape was found to be defective. This paper will report preliminary research findings on 23 of the 25 cases as two cases are still in the coding process.

Most defendants participating in the study were white (23), with one Black and one Spanish-speaking defendant represented. Most defendants, 17 of 25 were in the 18-24 age group. While most were single (21 of 25), three defendants were divorced or separated. Criminal charges represented by the research participants were evenly distributed across "property offenses" (12), and "personal offenses" (13). "Property" crimes in this study were retail theft (2), theft (6), and criminal damage to property (4). "Personal" crimes were battery (4), disorderly conduct (5), and obstructing an officer (4).

Procedure

The research study followed the sequence of events outlined below. Defendants who agreed to perform community service work and who were eligible for the research study, scheduled a community service placement interview with the investigator within one to three weeks of signing their contract. It was explained to the defendants that their participation was completely voluntary and the community service interviews would be tape recorded in the deferred prosecution offices.

If a defendant agreed to participate in the study, he and the researcher signed the voluntary participation consent form and completed the pre-community service interview. The defendant was, then, referred to a volunteer organization to begin community service work. The investigator

monitored community service compliance by regular telephone contacts with the volunteer supervisor. Once the community service hours were completed, the participant completed the post-community service interview and the volunteer supervisor filled out the evaluation instrument provided by the investigator.

The completed interview tapes were then transcribed, and coded by two judges after they had completed training and established an acceptable reliability level of .70 or greater. The interview transcripts were coded according to a coding schedule developed by the investigator. In order to enhance reliability of the judges, a single judge did not code, both, the pre and post-interview for the same defendant. Because of multiple interviews on individuals tapes, pre-interviews and post-interviews were assigned in groups. The set of interviews assigned to each judge included five reliability checks set after every five codings.

The data from the community service interviews and the volunteer supervisor evaluation form were compiled on tally sheets, along with the defendant's evaluation data from the post-community service interview. The resulting data were used to test the research conjecture.

Results

The research conjecture was tested in two ways using a Pearson product-moment correlation. The first correlation tested the degree of the relationship between the satisfaction of the community service experience (X), measured by the "total combined satisfaction score" of the defendant and the supervisor; and, the change in ego stage resolution (Y), measured by the "change in ego stage resolution score" Correlations greater than .50 ($p \leq .05$) were considered significant and important (Borg & Gall, 1983).

The second correlation tested the relationship between the satisfaction of the community service experience (X), measured by the "total combined satisfaction score" of the defendant and the supervisor; and, change in strength of ego stage resolution (Y), measured by the "change in strength of ego stage resolution score." The statistical package SPSS/PC+ (Norusis, 1986) was used to analyze the data. List-wise deletion of missing data was used.

Table 1 contains the correlation coefficients, means, and standard deviations among the satisfaction variable and the ego identity variables. Preliminary data analysis shows a significant negative correlation [$r = -.518$; $p \leq .01$] between with the community service experience and change in ego stage resolution. The correlation suggests a moderate relationship (Hinkle, Wiersma, & Jurs, 1979). There was a significant negative correlation ($p \leq .05$) between the community service experience and the change in strength of ego stage resolution. However the correlation ($r = -.186$) was considered weak and therefore excluded from further analysis. There is no significant relationship between satisfaction and change in the strength of ego stage resolution from the pre to the post test.

Discussion

Preliminary data analysis shows a significant, moderately negative relationship between satisfaction with the community service experience and change in ego stage resolution during the course of this study. Higher scores on ego stage resolution were association with lower combined satisfaction scores.

Is the relationship between satisfaction of the community service experience and change in ego stage resolution truly negative or is there a systemic problem in how the data was scored? Further analysis and review of the research process will be conducted to investigate the possibility of a

problem in scoring.

A negative correlation between satisfaction and change in ego stage resolution is congruent with Erikson's theory of ego development. Like physical growth, psychological growth does not follow an even course. It is marked by growth spurts, by periods of insight and reorganization, interspersed with rest periods of relative stability and self-maintenance.

Each of Erikson's the eight stages is described as a psychosocial crisis. Resolution of crucial interpersonal problems requires that individual become increasingly more involved with other persons and social institutions to make greater perceptual discriminations regarding their relationship to self and the external environment.

Defendants performing community service are actively working on a cognitive restructuring of experience. This restructuring activity and the upheavals associated with resolution of psychosocial crises influences the perception of the community service experience. Defendants experiencing greater change in ego resolution may perceive the community service experience as less satisfying due to the psychological discomfort they experience in the resolution of psychosocial crises which is necessary for achievement of a new level of ego integration.

TABLE 1
Correlation coefficients, means, standard deviations

Variables	Satisfaction	Ego Stage Resolution	Strength of Ego Stage Resolution
Satisfaction	1.000		
Ego Stage Res.	-.518**	1.000	
Strength of Res.	-.186*	.336	1.000
X	6.858	.547	.176
SD	2.325	.204	.082

* p .05.
** p .01.

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Inquiry as a Function of Practice

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Abstract

A division of the cycle of "knowing" into three consecutive and independent moments—research, learning, and practice—makes it increasingly difficult to reintegrate what, from another perspective, could be seen as a continuous and interactive process. There are, of course, other philosophies of knowledge as well as 'practiced' ways of knowing, within the context of which the "research-to-practice dilemma" does not occur. Alternative research paradigms and practices have gained prominence in the social sciences, but with particular clarity and richness among researchers whose primary focus of inquiry is adult education. Such approaches to the production of knowledge are grounded in a critique of theories of knowledge upon which traditional research is based.

Older paradigms of research, grounded in positivism, assume that 'objectivity' requires a neutral observer, free of bias, and skilled in a discipline which, through the rigorous application of method, prevents the contamination of data, insures the validity and reliability of its measures, and guarantees the significance of its outcomes. While recognizing the contextual importance of social and historical factors, it is only a small step for practitioners of the old paradigm to interpret the world as an a-historical, given context and to think of their own efforts to understand the world as coming to know more and more about an "objective given existential world."

The "new paradigm" is not simply a contradiction of the old. It is a dynamic synthesis of the old paradigm's search for the objectively given with the subjectivity of naive inquiry. Central to the emergence of "new paradigm" research is the realization that social knowledge is a social product—an essential component of the milieu under investigation. Research is an attempt not simply to unravel "the facts of the matter," but more importantly to generate meanings which enable those who comprehend them to better control their environment and change it. New paradigm research seeks to reintegrate the three moments in the cycle of knowing.

New paradigm inquiry involves a systematic production of practical knowledge rooted in shared self-understanding and linked with an educative methodology by which distortions in those self-understandings are overcome, thus providing a bridge between research and practice.

Inquiry as a Function of Practice

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Preferred wisdom has separated the production of knowledge from its assimilation and application. Unfortunately, this logical division of the cycle of "knowing" into three consecutive and independent moments—research, learning, and practice—makes it increasingly difficult to reintegrate what, from another perspective, could be seen as a continuous and interactive process. Hence, the research-to-practice split and a need for conferences such as this. The dilemma facing us at this conference is, of course, exacerbated by our having professionalized the now discrete roles of researcher, educator, and practitioner.

Earlier societies distributed tasks, crafts and specialities of production among their members according to need or inclination, but it remained for capitalist society to establish the division of labor as a foundational principle of industrial organization. While other societies organized work into productive specialities, we have systematically divided each speciality into seemingly discrete operations. Braverman describes this distinction as the difference between the *social* division of labor which commonly occurred in earlier societies and the *detailed* division of labor, the latter being "the breakdown of the processes involved in the making of the product into manifold operations performed by different workers" (1974, 72).

This detailed division of labor has not been limited to assembly line production, but quickly expanded to include an emerging service sector which includes adult education. An instance of this detailed division is the split between thinkers and doers, between research and practice—a division legitimated by the development of doctoral degrees emphasizing theory related to fields of practice, beginning with the Ed.D. degree first granted at Harvard in the early 1900's (Smith 1974). Henceforth, specialists devised theories upon which practice was assumed to be based. Practitioners could not be required to abandon thought entirely, but they could be required to think within parameters prescribed for them by academic researchers and promulgated through schools of professional training. Fortunately, the authority of academics has proven singularly ineffective and the outlooks of professional school faculty and the professions themselves are seldom the same. (Jencks and Riesman 1968, 20)

While "functionalist" researchers attempt to bridge theory and practice, practitioners resist—their 'real' questions often ignored—and the impact of officially produced knowledge remains serendipitous at best. In day-to-day life, we find practice is often more often influenced by the demands of political systems, the inertia of bureaucracies, and the unexamined assumptions of practitioners. The net impact of a prestigious and lucrative academic research industry on practice in the service sector is to maintain the illusion of progress, while

legitimating and perpetuating the status quo (Freidson 1986).

There are, of course, other philosophies of knowledge as well as 'practiced' ways of knowing, within the context of which the "research-to-practice dilemma" does not occur. A holistic concept of "knowing" can be found in the Marxist concept of praxis, a theoretical construct combining reflection and action. More recently, alternative research paradigms and practices have gained prominence in the social sciences, but with particular clarity and richness among researchers whose primary focus of inquiry is adult education. Such approaches to the production of knowledge are grounded in a critique of theories of knowledge upon which the old paradigm is based.

The Old Paradigm...

In establishing a relationship between the world and our knowledge of it, some have sought to remove one element from the equation. The pendulum has swung over generations from materialism to idealism, from the a-historic to evolution and a theory of progress. A research paradigm emerged as a corrective to the imbalance—an empirical and inductive model for understanding knowledge and its relation to the world which has dominated social science since the first quarter of the nineteenth century (Gouldner 1970).

This paradigm, grounded in positivism, assumed that 'objectivity' required a neutral observer, free of bias, and skilled in a discipline which, through the rigorous application of methods, prevented the contamination of data, insured the validity and reliability of its measures, and guaranteed the significance of its outcomes. Its model was natural science wherein measurement was associated with the higher and more exact science of mathematics. In social science research this association was generally obtained by the statistical aggregation of individual action (responses).

This paradigm recognizes the world as "context" for our knowing, but in a limited and elementary way which distorts the resulting representation of reality. It is only a small step from acknowledging the world as the context for human existence to interpreting the world as an a-historical, *given* context and thinking of the researcher's efforts to understand the world as coming to know more and more about an "objectively given existential world" (Harris 1979, 4). Such a view ignores the historical nature of any systematic and prescriptive methodology. More importantly, it ignores theoretical assumptions—however tentative and preliminary—underlying any attempt to investigate or act upon the world.

It is important to note, however, that this paradigm is not limited to "quantitative" method and that the quantitative–qualitative debate fails to address a more central paradigmatic issue in research. In fact, much of what is styled "qualitative research" is actually *quantitative* in its internal logic, even though using qualitative means for the collection of data. For example, central to Glaser and Strauss' discussion of grounded theory (1967) is the notion of "saturation of data"—the point at which further collection of data is unnecessary because the *numbers* of convergent responses enable the researcher to anticipate outcomes before they occur. Similarly, interviews and other "soft" means of data collection are frequently used to *count* the opinions of respondents. An underlying assumption of such research is that conclusions about society are to be drawn from the aggregated responses of individuals, whether the *totals* are statistically manipulated or not. Moreover, such research pretends to isolate and categorize the objectively given. These are fundamentally old paradigm premises.

The New Paradigm...

The "new paradigm" is not simply a contradiction of the old. It is the dynamic synthesis of the old paradigm's search for the objectively given with the subjectivity of naive inquiry (figure 1). This synthesis encompasses both qualitative and quantitative research methodologies. It is phenomenological in its search for historically-grounded and objectively subjective knowledge. (Reason and Rowan 1981)

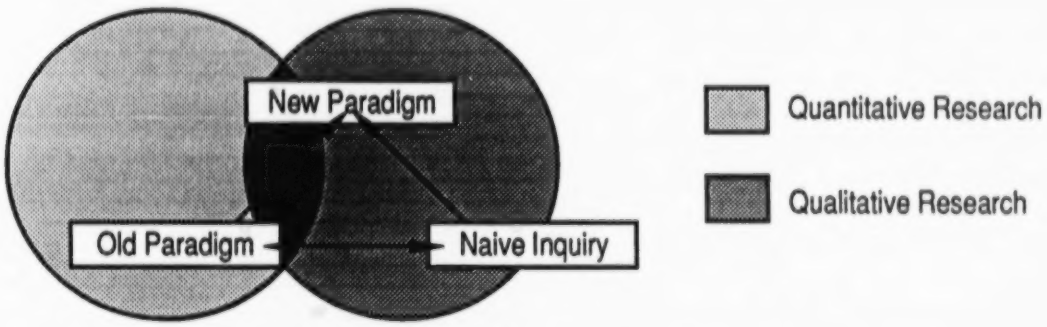

Figure 1. New and Old Paradigm Research

Central to the emergence of "new paradigm" research is the realization that social knowledge is a social product—an essential component of the milieu under investigation. Research is an attempt not simply to unravel "the facts of the matter," but more importantly to generate meanings which enable those who comprehend them to better *control* their environment and *change* it (Tolbert 1976). New paradigm research is about the business of empowerment and attendant upon its practice are profound and urgent ethical questions concerning the distribution of knowledge and power.

New paradigm research seeks to reintegrate the three moments in the cycle of knowing: 1) *Research*—it is a process of investigation into social issues and concerns involving the full participation of those concerned; 2) *Education*—it is an educational process in which people concerned (those for whom the new knowledge will provide a *basis* for decision-making and action) develop an in-depth awareness of problems, a shared analysis of root-causes, and a consensus on appropriate strategies for effectively eliminating them; and 3) *Action*—it is a process of collective and *reflective* action toward long term solutions.

New paradigm inquiry embodies stages or moments which are best visualized as a cycle (figure 2). A research project can begin at any point in the cycle, although most frequently it will begin and end with "doing"—with concrete action or practice. Activists and practitioners, in their day-to-day struggle to make sense of their work, experience frustrations, contradictions, and

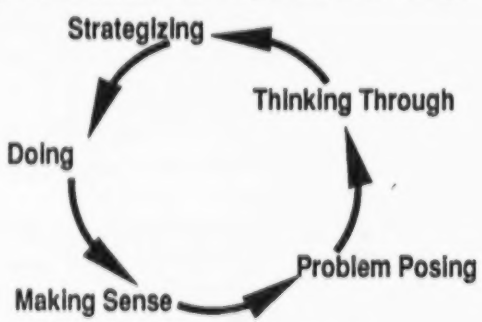

Figure 2: Cycle of Inquiry

unanticipated challenges. Reflection on these experiences can lead to a critical and analytical posing of problems underlying practice. The problems, in turn, can be systematically thought through—the practitioner turning to others who have experienced similar problems and developing a peer network of co-researchers who bring a variety of experiences and knowledge to understanding the problem. Unanswered questions are isolated and methods for resolving them identified—educative methods which both articulate self-understandings and simultaneously reveal distortions within those self-understandings (Carr & Kemmis 1986). While occasionally "thinking through" requires a systematic collection and analysis of new data, more often the collective experiences of a broad network provides the basis for critical reflection and, ultimately, the rationale for the inquiry's conclusion in the form of strategies for new or renewed action.

Who makes the circuit? What role, if any, do "professional researchers" play in this process? These are critical issues for new paradigm research. As Rowan points out, traditional research alienates the practitioner by isolating "thinking through" in the cycle of inquiry (1981). The researcher only touches the cycle at one point, whereas in the participatory design of new paradigm research, researchers and practitioners touch the cycle at multiple—or at all—points (figure 3).

New paradigm inquiry, therefore, is the systematic production of practical knowledge which is rooted in shared self-understanding and linked with an educative methodology by which distortions in those self-understandings are overcome. This new paradigm inquiry, providing a bridge between research and practice, has now infused the social sciences and is exemplified in studies including action research of the 1940s and 1950s (Lewin 1946), endogenous research of Maruyama (1978) and participatory research from the ongoing work of the International Council for Adult Education (Callaway 1980) to the 1980 Appalachian land use study supported by the Highlander Reseaerch and Education Center in Tennessee (Appalachian Land Ownership Task Force 1983).

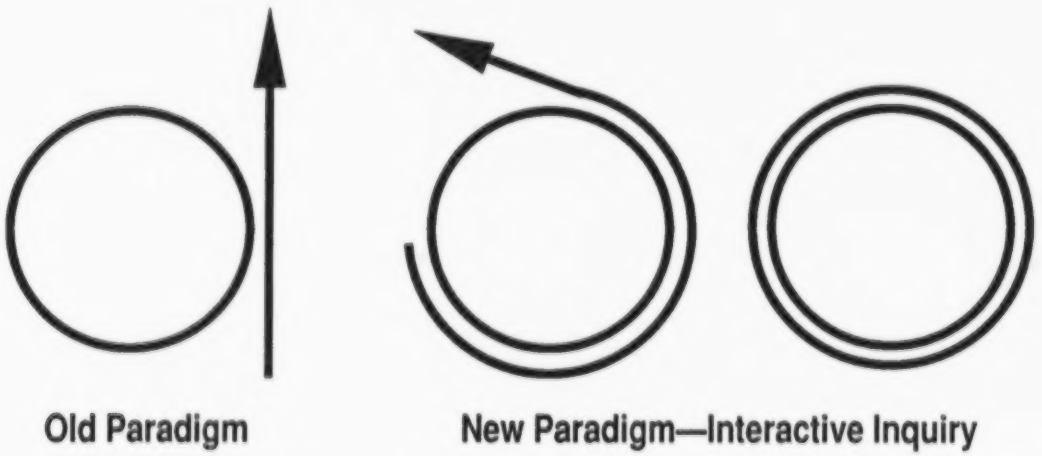

Figure 3: Researcher's Link with the Cycle of Inquiry

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A Comparison of Three Transfer of Training Strategies In Inservice Adult Teacher Training

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ABSTRACT:

The need for effective inservice education for teachers is great. Often, in-service programs teach new knowledge and skills, but there is little carry over into teaching practice. The purpose of this study was to develop an effective inservice program in methods of teaching specific subject matter and to compare the effectiveness of four different follow-up strategies: consultant coaching, team coaching, group meetings, and no follow-up. The major hypotheses tested were: teachers receiving training will demonstrate a significant increase in mean scores on a knowledge test and on a skill performance instrument when compared with a group of teachers not receiving the same training; there will be significant differences in performance of skills between trained subjects exposed to follow-up treatment and trained subjects receiving no follow-up treatment; and, there will be no significant differences in skill performance among treated groups receiving the four levels of follow-up. Data were analyzed using two-factor analysis of covariance. The covariates were age, years of schooling, and years of teaching experience. A significant difference was found between trained and untrained subjects on the knowledge criterion. No other significant interactions were found, however, subjects receiving follow-up made positive changes on the two performance measures. Subjects in the consultant coaching and group meeting treatments improved more than subjects in the team coaching and no follow-up groups.

A Comparison of Three Transfer of Training Strategies in Inservice Adult Teacher Training

Considerable amounts of time and effort are spent providing continuing education for employees of organizations with varying degrees of success. In-service education or staff development is defined as any training activity designed to increase competencies needed by employees in the performance of their assignments (adapted from Wade, 1985). The rapid increase of change in all aspects of society calls for improved quality in educator competencies.

The need for effective inservice education for teachers is great. Often, inservice education programs teach new knowledge and skills. Teachers usually emerge refreshed from these experiences, but there is little carry over into teaching practice. Some suggest that the key to effective inservice lies in the transfer of training into classroom practice. However, this vital link has been largely ignored.

Certain elements have proven effective in helping teaching professionals learn new skills or refine already existing ones. The elements of a fully elaborated inservice program include an understanding of the theory behind the skill being learned, modeling or demonstration of the skill, practice and feedback in the use of the skill, and in-class assistance with the transfer of the skill to the actual teaching situation.

The purpose of this study was twofold. One objective was to design and implement an effective training program in methods of teaching specific subject matter. Although the audience for this was day care teachers and the subject matter was mathematical concepts, these teachers are adults. Hence, the model of inservice education developed and followed considered and included adult learning principles. The effectiveness of the training was assessed in terms of changes in teacher behavior in the classroom and knowledge of the subject matter.

A second objective of this study was to investigate and compare the most effective means of assisting these adult teachers with the transfer of knowledge and skills learned in inservice education to actual classroom use.

Research Problem

Research in inservice education has established that training should be organized and conducted following certain general guidelines and that some sort of in-class assistance is necessary for effective transfer of training. While there is no specific theoretical model of effective inservice education, empirical studies support the need for skillful planning, implementation, and follow-up.

Phase I of the study measured the effectiveness of a training program designed for this study, which follows the general model supported in the literature for inservice education of teachers at other levels. Because of the range of experience, ages, and years of schooling represented in the teacher population, these factors were controlled in the experiment. Trained subjects were compared on various performance parameters with subjects receiving no training in order to measure the effectiveness of the inservice program itself.

In Phase II, the population of trained subjects was exposed to four different transfer strategies and compared on the ability to utilize inservice training in the classroom. This comparison provided information on the most effective ways to facilitate transfer of new knowledge and skills to the classroom.

Hypotheses

After length of teaching experience, age, and years of schooling were taken into account, the following hypotheses were tested:

1. In Phase I of the study, a group of teachers receiving inservice training will demonstrate a significant increase in mean scores on a skill performance instrument when compared with a group of teachers not receiving the same training.

2. In Phase I of the study, a group of teachers receiving inservice training will demonstrate a significant increase in mean scores on a knowledge test when compared with a group of teachers not receiving the same training.

3. In Phase IIA of the study, there will be significant differences in performance of skills between trained subjects exposed to follow-up treatment and trained subjects receiving no follow-up treatment.

4. In Phase IIB of the study, there will be no significant differences in skill performance among the treated groups receiving the four levels of follow-up.

Review of Related Literature

In order to understand what is involved in identifying the most effective inservice training techniques and ways in which learning can be transferred from inservice training to classroom use, several different areas of research were reviewed. They included transfer of training, adult development as well as adult learning theory in addition to conceptual systems theory, elements of effective staff development practices, and the variety of strategies including knowledge acquisition which are part of the training format.

Transfer of training according Grabowski (1983), Joyce and Showers (1981 a & b) and others assert that conditions associated with success in this area include relevance of training, competency in learned skills, motivation to change behaviors, the forecasting of transfer problems during training, and on-the-job feedback regarding performance of skills.

Adult learning and conceptual systems development theory as expressed by Rogers (1951),Tough (1971), Knowles (1980), and others indicate that learning experiences should be based on the needs and developmental levels of individuals and provide for practice and feedback of newly acquired skills.

Tough (1971), Herzberg (1966), Joyce and Showers (1981A), Wade (1985) and others focus on eight elements of effective training including: based on learner needs, objectives clear and specific, supported by organization, participation motivated, supportive feedback provided, accessible, length and depth appropriate, individual characteristics considered.

Regarding training format, Showers (1983A), Wade (1985), Roper, Deal and Dornbusch (1976), Bondi (1970) and still others suggest four levels of program content leading to different training outcomes: knowledge acquisition, modeling and demonstration, practice and feedback, and, coaching and goal-setting.

Based on the literature review a comprehensive model of inservice education was developed. The model includes four general principles which were used in the development of the inservice training model used in this study. The principles and some suggestions for implementing follow.

First, training must be needs based. It must be built around the assessed needs and interests of the learners and be of practical use in the classroom. These may be accomplished by conducting formal and informal needs assessments. Mix and match learner needs with stated program objectives, check that needs are being met throughout, use class examples of problem solving.

Second, teachers are motivated to participate. Motivation should be intrinsic, yet care should be taken to remove obstacles to enthusiastic participation by conducting time convenient training, appealing to professionalism, using team-building, voluntary participation, forecasting transfer problems, creating trust, respect, and support, and developing active investment in planning and conducting learning.

Third, the organization must actively support the training by prior agreement on objectives, attendance, follow-up, resources, and encouragement for attempting training transfer.

Fourth, an on-the-job coaching process by supervisors, peers, consultants, or in group meetings needs to focus on analysis and application of new skills, support and companionship, goal-setting and evaluation of goals and plans for future coaching.

Methodology

The study consisted of an instrument development phase and a main study with two experimental phases. Subjects were twenty-seven teachers from twenty-four licensed day care centers in the St. Louis Metropolitan area. A pilot study was conducted in which an observational rating scale was designed to measure the quality and frequency of use of skills in the teaching setting which were learned during training. Validity and inter-rater reliability were assessed. Raters were trained in the use of the instrument and conducted all observations in the teaching setting. Also during the pilot phase, a pencil-paper test of knowledge of the content of the inservice program was designed and validated. High inter-rater reliabilities and content validity as judged by three experts, permitted the conclusion that the teacher performance rating scale represented a valid measure of teacher performance. Similarly, content validity was judged high by the same three experts for the knowledge test.

In the training phase or Phase I of the study, twenty-two teachers were trained and five untrained teachers served as a comparison group. Dependent measures were a pencil-paper test of knowledge and ratings on a teacher behavior and physical environment observational scale. They were administered both prior to and immediately following training. Data were analyzed using two-factor analysis of covariance. The first factor, Training, had two levels -- training and no training. The second factor, Testing, also had two levels -- pre-test and post-test. The covariates were age, years of schooling, and years of teaching experience.

During the follow up Phase IIA, two-factor analysis of covariance was used to determine if significant differences emerged in performance of skills between trained subjects exposed to follow-up and trained subjects receiving no follow-up treatment among coaching groups. The dependent measures were the two sub-scales of the observational rating scale-teacher behavior and physical environment. The

first factor was Treatment, with two levels -- follow-up and no follow-up. The second factor, Testing had two levels -- after training and after coaching. Covariates were age, number of years of schooling, and number of years of teaching.

During the follow-up Phase IIB of the study, teachers trained in this project were randomly divided into four follow-up groups: consultant coaching, team coaching, group meetings and no follow-up. Ratings on the observational rating scale were conducted immediately after training and after follow-up. All follow-up observations were conducted in the subject's teaching setting. Data were compared and analyzed using the two factor analysis of covariance to determine if any differences in skill performance emerged among the treated groups receiving the four levels of follow-up. The first factor was Treatment with four levels -- consultant, coaching, team coaching, group meetings and no follow-up. The second factor, Testing, had two levels -- after training and after coaching. The covariates were age, years of schooling, and years of teaching experience.

Results

In Phase I of the study, a significant difference was found between trained and untrained subjects on the knowledge criterion. The mean score on the training group moved from 12.22 on the pre-test to a mean score of 17.27 on the post-test. The no training group only moved from a mean score of 12.00 on the pre-test to a mean score of 12.60 on the post-test. No other significant interactions were found. However, subjects receiving follow-up made positive changes on two performance measures. Subjects in the coaching and group meeting treatments improved more than subjects in the team coaching and no follow-up groups.

Implications and Recommendations

Additional research needs to be conducted to determine if extent of skill practice and length of time between training/coaching and observation of skill and/or other kinds of follow-up to training could increase skill performance change.

In spite of the lack of statistical significance, this study indicates the importance of carefully planned inservice programs which follow principles of adult and inservice education. Also indicated is a need for organizational support as well as follow-up to initial training in order to insure transfer of training into the teaching or training setting. In practice, principles of effective inservice and adult education should be followed and teachers should be supported as they transfer what is learned in those programs to their teaching and training setting.

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LONG TERM IMPACT EVALUATION OF CONTINUING EDUCATION PROGRAMS

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ABSTRACT:

The information explosion in our technologically oriented society has brought with it a shortened time span of cultural and factual knowledge change in each succeeding decade. Thus, professionals constantly need continuing education programs which provide up-dated information and skill development in their respective fields to keep from becoming obsolete. However, a question remains for those who seek to serve those needs: How will the long term impact of these continuing education programs be measured, determined and evaluated? One continuing education program has sought to answer that major question. In 1975 some rural health care professionals originated a request to an educational institution for providing low cost quality continuing education for their needs in their rural area. By 1988, the continuing success of that program included: a local program planning committee, thirty-six one-day workshops, each on a different topic, with an average attendance of sixty-eight from four states. A one-page "Impact Survey Report Form" was adapted and developed to include Kirkpatrick's evaluation paradigm of reaction; learning, behavior and results. Five hundred twenty different participants were sent forms with two hundred twenty-seven responding. Questions included: what they gained, applied, the value to them and others, skill practice adequacy, cost/benefit ratio, benefits resulting, people served weekly, and space to describe something they used and the results.

Long Term Impact Evaluation of Continuing Education Programs

The information explosion in our technologically oriented society has brought with it a shortened time span of major cultural change in each succeeding decade. Half of what we know as facts today will rapidly be replaced by new knowledge. Thus, professionals constantly need up-dated information and skill development in their respective fields. Improvement of performance on present jobs, acquiring skills and knowledge to do new jobs, and continuing career progress in the changing world of work are all part of the employee competence and productivity picture needed by organizations for survival in the volatile economic conditions of the world marketplace.

Technological, economic, and demographic change, as well as other forces continually create new needs for learning by the work force. Lifelong learning is mandatory to those who would not become obsolete. Employee training and development has emerged as a major educational enterprise in the past three decades or so. Continuing education programs conducted in-house for an organization or provided for public subscription or enrollment have become big business to a wide variety of organizations who recognize the opportunity to serve these important needs.

Focus of the Study

A question remains for those who would seek to serve these needs: How will the long term impact of these continuing education programs be measured, determined and evaluated? If one were to inquire of various program coordinators responsible for evaluation, multiple answers would be forthcoming, few of which focus on long term impact. This problem does not just exist with major institutions providing continuing education programs for the public. The author has confronted and raised questions about this with Fortune 500 Corporations in the metropolitan St. Louis area such as: a defense contractor, a chemical research firm, a communications supplier and a health care provider.

The author also has raised the issue with a large educational institution in another major city in the USA. Almost without exception the problem is not understood, much less addressed in any coherent fashion. The following illustrates the lack of understanding. To determine what the training department would do when and if the corporation ever faced a financial crisis and questions were raised about the monetary value of the training function to the corporation, the question was asked: How would you respond? Members of the training department responded by saying that they knew they were not prepared for that day. Neither did they come to grips with that issue as time moved on. Three years later in 1987 when the crisis came, the total training function was dismantled and the training staff of seventy persons was disbursed into other non-training jobs throughout the company and some left the company.

It should be fairly obvious that with the press today for accountability and "the bottom line," an answer needs to be developed to help continuing education programs survive in times of tough financial realities.

Methodology

One program has sought to answer that major question regarding long term impact evaluation. In 1975 a continuing education program for health care professionals was originated through a request from the professionals to a university. The request was an inquiry about whether affordable, quality continuing education programs could be provided to the health care professionals in the rural setting.

While some were provided in the larger cities, distance, cost, accessibility, and ability to get time off tight work schedules to attend was becoming increasingly difficult to manage.

After a two year period of needs assessment and developing the mechanism to respond, the program was launched in 1977. During the two year planning period several items were clarified that contribute to the long term impact. It was determined that the major constant in the professional's needs for up-dated information and skill development in health care concerned modes of transmission and disease, causative agents, symptoms, preventative and corrective measures. The major objectives of the workshops became helping the participants acquire: updated information on various aspects of nursing and other professional health care; new and improved methods and techniques in the delivery of professional health care; and, enhancement of their competencies in health care delivery in the late 1970's, throughout the 1980's, and into the 1990's.

It was also thought that a planning committee needed to become a permanent part of guiding and developing appropriate offerings. This group has remained in place throughout the years although it has changed personnel. It has maintained its function and purpose in working with the university even when the university personnel has changed and the relationship to this committee has been assigned to other university personnel. The planning committee decided that since the center of the geographic area to be served was in the northwest corner of Missouri, the needs of professionals from the three surrounding states (Iowa, Kansas, Nebraska) could be provided for in the planning and expected to participate.

The programs were ultimately developed into one-day workshops with each having their own set of specific objectives. Between 1977 and 1988 there had been thirty-six one day workshops conducted each on a different topic as follows:

1. Child Abuse and Neglect;
2. Teenage and Adult Alcoholism and Drug Abuse;
3. Growth and Development - Behavior Problems;
4. Depression and Suicide;
5. The Dying Patient and His Family;
6. Mental Health and the Older Adult;
7. Management and Assessment of the Cardiac Patient - A Team Approach;
8. Stress, Anxiety, and Depression;
9. Psychodrama;
10. More Effective Therapeutic Communication for the Health Care Professionals;
11. The Sex Experience Cycle of the Physically and/or Emotionally Disabled Person;
12. Assertive Training for the Health Care Professional;
13. The Human Side of Aging;
14. Pediatric Assessment of the Newborn;
15. Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease;
16. Congestive Heart Failure;
17. Moral, Ethical, and Legal Issues of Nursing Practice;
18. Diabetes Assessment;
19. Mental Health--Dealing with Stress and Burnouts;
20. Pediatric Assessment of the School-Age Child;
21. Training for Parent/Child Sex Education;
22. Ostomies;
23. Intrapartum Complications;
24. The Mature Adult: Alzheimer's Disease;
25. Family Support: The Hospice Setting;
26. Sleep Disorders;

27. How to Manage Your Home, Career, Family & Sanity;
28. Communication Sense
29. Perspectives on Aging;
30. Caught in the Trap--Compulsive Behaviors;
31. Abuse: Our Elusive Problem, Children the Victims;
32. New Visions in Health Care for Today's Woman;
33. Change Begins With Me--Behavior Modification
34. AIDS--Spread Facts Not Fear;
35. Getting Along With People Who Are Difficult;
36. AIDS: Education Is Your Best Weapon;

Although it may seem unnecessary to list all the topics, this helps to identify some major themes which are part of this particular program's long term impact. Family focus is one of the underlying themes of a number of topics. Current diseases is another underlying theme. Communication and management of self is still another.

The average number of participants was sixty-eight with the low attendance being twenty-four and the high attendance being one hundred forty-two. The participants came from four states-Kansas, Nebraska, Iowa and Missouri. They came from a radius of one hundred eighty miles around Maryville, Missouri including the metropolitan areas of Kansas City, Des Moines, and Omaha.

Evaluation Design

Each of the programs had finished with a fairly typical post-meeting reaction evaluation form being completed by the participants. Those immediate reactions were mostly positive and some of the participants came back to subsequent workshops. Not only that, a number of new participants enrolled with each succeeding workshop. In addition, one section called for participant suggestions of topics to be considered for future workshops - an idea which also contributed to the long term impact and continuation of the series. However, the long-term effect some years and months later of what the participants gained and were still using in their professional practice was the main concern which initiated this study. When the question of determining the effectiveness of the programs was raised, a second question needed to be answered: Effective in terms of what? Kirkpatrick's (1987) Four Step Paradigm helped develop the answer. Reaction indicates how well conferees like the program. Learning targets the principles, facts and techniques to be acquired as well as the attitudes that changed. Behavior identifies the changes in job behavior which were implemented. Results encompass the tangible reduced cost, improved quality, improved quantity, etc.

The evaluation design consisted of a one-page impact survey report form for thirteen programs and five hundred twenty participants. A personal interview with twenty past participants, and a personal interview with one supervisor of each of these twenty participants was considered. However, this idea was abandoned later because added benefits that would be gained from this step were not warranted by the time and cost that would have been involved.

The one-page Impact Survey Report Form was adapted from literature in the continuing education and health care fields and the one used with University of Wisconsin-Extension Programs (Steele, 1980). A cover letter was sent to the past participants along with a copy of each form, from thirteen of the programs. They were requested to complete and return the form indicating their viewpoint of what and how these programs contributed to their professional practice and current delivery of services. A reminder card was sent six weeks after the original letter. A second letter and materials was sent six weeks after the card to those who had not responded.

Evaluation Results

The title, date, and objectives of the one-page Impact Survey Report Form was appropriate to each program under consideration.

Returns on the impact survey report totaled 341 forms from 227 participants. The returns on these indicate the following:

1. What they gained by taking part in these programs is indicated by the number of responses to each item--

   204--Insights from hearing what others are doing
   150--Contacts with experts in my field
   181--New ideas to try
   167--Answers to questions
   143--Useful resource materials
   143--Reinforcement that you probably are doing things right
   125--Contacts with other participants
   111--Help in making a decision
    78--Development of a new skill
    12--Other
    15--Nothing much

2. Above eighty percent rated from moderate to high the amount of information they actually applied and used, value to them and others, and adequacy of skill practice allowed to them to use back on the job.

3. Over ninety-four percent said yes, definitely or probably yes that their gain from the program was worth the time and money they spent.

4. The benefits resulting from their use of the ideas gained at these programs included other things in addition to the most important ones of better service to the patients and personal satisfaction, as indicated by the number of responses to each item--

   213--Better service to patients
   213--Personal satisfaction
   178--Personal confidence
   145--Greater skill
   149--Improved decision making
   161--Increased thinking ability
   128--Better personnel relations
   108--Greater satisfaction from the people you serve
    54--Better planning
    50--Better use of time
    52--Better management
    33--Improvements in community
    23--Improved handling of regulations, forms, etc.
     6--A new position or a promotion
     4--Increased income
     6--Other

5. The health care needs of 11,764 different patients per week are being served presently by the professionals who attended these programs.

The health care needs of 18,846 total "professional-program-participant-patients" are currently being served per week with many of these nurses and other health care professionals having attended more than one of these programs.

Among the stories of what participants used from the workshops and results they had are the following:

Child Abuse and Neglect
"I presented a child abuse workshop to my nursing staff,"
"I assisted hospital staff in proper use of drug hot line,"
"I used this information to help a niece know the child abuse law, the number to contact and decide whether to report a case of what looked like child abuse."

Depression and Suicide
"I am a school teacher. A student had taken an overdose of drugs at a ballgame. I was able to talk with her and keep her at school until her mother arrived to take her to the hospital. They pumped her stomach and saved her. I was grateful for the information I'd learned at the course."

The Dying Patient and His Family
"In a year's time I serve 40-50 families in a death situation, counseling with many of them to prepare them for the final step of death. I am better able to do this and bring comfort, strength and hope to patient and family because of this workshop."

Stress, Anxiety and Depression
"This course helped me greatly with the 63 counseling sessions I have conducted this year such as coping, crisis situations, depressions, attempted suicides."

Findings and Implications

Based solely on the Impact Survey Report Form Data, it seems safe to assume that the general health level of the overall Northwest Missouri community and its outreach into neighboring states has been improved through these continuing education programs.

Beyond the immediate value of the listed programs, the process used for mobilizing and sustaining, staying close to and responding to the needs of the people being served has its own long term impact. In addition the impact report form if used, can contribute to making sound program decisions; provide understanding of important benefits to participants, aid in clear reporting of results to the community; and, be adapted and applied to use with a wide variety of professional groups and program series of long or short duration.

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THE ASSESSMENT OF ORGANIZATIONAL INEFFECTIVENESS AND EFFECTIVENESS IN COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES

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ABSTRACT

This study sought to identify indicators of organizational ineffectiveness and patterns of institutional practices which may be productive of effective, ineffective, or conflicting institutional outcomes. Utilizing a sample of 4-year institutions, effectiveness scores were assessed using a common instrument in 1976, 1980 and 1983. Institutional ineffectiveness was also assessed. Data analyses determined institutional effectiveness and ineffectiveness are independent. Further, patterns of institutional practices which appeared to be associated with effective, ineffective or paradoxical outcomes emerged. In particular the incidence of violations of codes of conduct appears to be associated with negative effectiveness outcomes, yet paradoxically there may be some positive relationship between graduation rates and the enforcement of a student code of conduct. Further research addressing the contextual variables which impact institutional effectiveness seem indicated.

THE ASSESSMENT OF ORGANIZATIONAL INEFFECTIVENESS AND EFFECTIVENESS IN COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES

PHILIP JONES

Research Hypothesis

To date, all the literature which has addressed the measurement of institutional effectiveness has been concerned with the examination of positive characteristics or criteria. However, it has been argued (Cameron, 1978; 1984) that another important organizational variable exists: organizational ineffectiveness. If organizational effectiveness is independent of organizational ineffectiveness, the indicators of the presence of each will be independent. This study sought to do two things: first, to identify indicators of organizational ineffectiveness and thus to establish the independence of the two constructs; second, to identify patterns of institutional practices which may be productive of effective, ineffective, or conflicting institutional outcomes. As such, the study represents the first attempt to assess both the positive and negative characteristics of organizations, specifically institutions of higher education.

Methodology

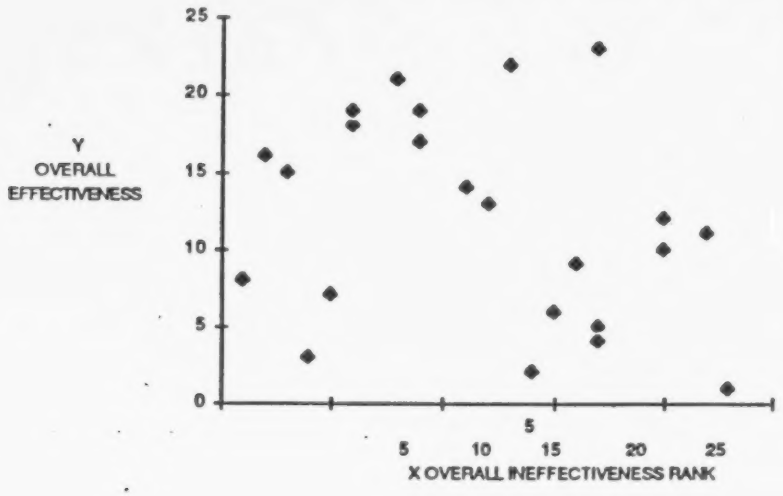
In order to obtain a clearer understanding of the construct of organizational ineffectiveness, an instrument was designed to measure potential indicators within postsecondary educational institutions. The study utilized a sample of 4-year institutions, whose effectiveness scores had been assessed using a common instrument in 1976, 1980 and 1983. These effectiveness scores remained relatively stable, such that no significant difference occurred over time. Measures derived from the ineffectiveness instrument were compared to those obtained from the effectiveness data in order to identify patterns of institutional practices. Data analysis consisted of descriptive statistics and multiple regression.

Results:

<u>The Independence of Effectiveness and Ineffectiveness:</u>

Using the data gathered from the institutional ineffectiveness instrument and that previously gathered (1976, 1980, 1983) from the same institutions using the institutional effectiveness instrument,

institutions were rank ordered by overall ineffectiveness rank and overall effectiveness rank. Using these two scores, coordinates were constructed for each institution: the overall ineffectiveness rank was used for the X-axis coordinate; and the overall effectiveness rank was used for the Y-axis coordinate. These coordinates were then plotted on a scattergram and the resulting plot is presented below.



If effectiveness and ineffectiveness were positively correlated, institutions would be clustered from high effectiveness/low ineffectiveness (top left) to low effectiveness/high ineffectiveness (bottom left). Conversely, if effectiveness and ineffectiveness were negatively correlated, they would be clustered from high effectiveness/high ineffectiveness (bottom left) to low effectiveness/low ineffectiveness (top right). The scattergram indicates that neither situation pertains, and that the two dimensions of institutional effectiveness and institutional ineffectiveness are indeed independent.

The rank orderings for both institutional effectiveness and institutional ineffectiveness were now divided into quartiles. Those institutions falling in the top or bottom quartiles of the ineffectiveness rankings and the top or bottom quartiles of the effectiveness rankings were now plotted on a 2-by-2 matrix. The results of this manipulation further indicated the independence of the two constructs. While the most effective institution in the sample was also found to be the least ineffective, other highly effective institutions were found to be simultaneously highly ineffective, while much less effective institutions were found to be among the most and the least ineffective.

The ineffectiveness dimension was now subdivided into two categories: dimensions of weakness, or ineffective service; and dimensions of harm. Data used to calculate dimensions of ineffective service, or weakness, included responses to questions concerning student attrition; employability; library services; budget allocations and community relations. Data used to calculate dimensions of harm included responses to questions concerning student indebtedness; litigation involving the institution; violations of codes of conduct; felonies and vandalism; and involuntary termination of employees.

Using this subdivision of ineffectiveness, further matrices were plotted between effectiveness and weakness; and effectiveness and harm. These plots produced some noticeable differences from the initial matrix. When dimensions of service alone were examined, an inverse relationship was found to exist. None of the most effective institutions were found to be simultaneously among the most ineffective. Likewise, none of the least effective institutions were found to be among the least ineffective.

However, when dimensions of harm were isolated, the result was the reverse, and a positive relationship was discovered. Some of the most effective institutions were found to be among the most ineffective; whereas several of the least effective institutions were found to be among the least ineffective.

Identifying Patterns of Practices:

The second part of this research focused upon the identification of patterns of institutional practices which appeared to be associated with effective, ineffective, or paradoxical outcomes. Results to date have not been fully analyzed, but already some interesting findings are emerging

Certain dimensions of institutional ineffectiveness were discovered to correlate very highly with each other. The number of violations of the faculty code of conduct and the number of grievances brought against the institution by faculty members correlated strongly ($r = .764$). Further, faculty violations increased as the proportion of the budget spent on faculty development fell ($r = -.584$). When ineffectiveness dimensions were compared to effectiveness dimensions, it was found that violations of the faculty code also correlated negatively with faculty satisfaction ($r = -.577$) and organizational health ($r = -.520$).

Institutions with higher levels of violation of the faculty code of conduct also reported higher levels of violation of the student code of conduct ($r = .968$). High levels of violation of the student code of conduct were found to be negatively associated with two effectiveness

dimensions: faculty satisfaction (r=-.556) and organizational health (r=-.619). Despite this, high levels of violation of the student code of conduct were found to be positively associated with high graduation levels (r=.611), suggesting to the researchers the possibility that strong discipline and student success might be related, though this is purely conjectural at this point.

Most recently, it has been determined that the effectiveness dimension of student development correlates strongly with two ineffectiveness dimensions: the proportion of students employed on campus (r=.562); and the number of hours the library remained open (r=.537). Library hours also appear to be positively associated with faculty development (r=.687).

The identification of patterns of institutional practices and the institutional outcomes with which they may be associated is the subject of continuing investigation.

Summary of Findings:

The results of the study indicated the independence of the construct of organizational ineffectiveness from that of organizational effectiveness, and enabled an inter- and intra-institutional comparative framework to be developed. This framework further highlighted the independence of the two constructs and challenged the normal assumptions by indicating the presence in some institutions of both high effectiveness and high ineffectiveness.

Preliminary indications suggest that certain dimensions of effectiveness and ineffectiveness are closely associated with each other. In particular, the incidence of violation of codes of conduct seems to be associated with negative effectiveness outcomes, yet paradoxically there may be some positive relationship between graduation rates and the enforcement of a student code of conduct.

Further research should address the contextual variables which impact institutional ineffectiveness. It would seem profitable to examine whether specific forms of institutional culture impact institutional ineffectiveness in any systematic fashion. In time, this may permit a predictive theory of institutional ineffectiveness to be developed. Moreover, the full extent of the relationships between patterns of practices and their effective and ineffective outcomes needs to be explored.

The results presented here are currently being utilized in ongoing research into the indicators of organizational ineffectiveness and the institutional management practices which appear to mitigate their effects.

Importance of the Study:

This study is important for two reasons. First, it challenges the basis for the normal assumption that high effectiveness is the same as an absence of ineffectiveness, and that high ineffectiveness is merely an absence of effectiveness. The independence of these two constructs is highlighted by this research, and in particular the existence of high effectiveness alongside high ineffectiveness represents a new finding. Second, the study represents the first systematic attempt to identify and measure the indicators of institutional ineffectiveness.

Applications of Findings to Practice:

The study of organizational ineffectiveness in institutions of higher education has applicability for the entire higher education enterprise. Through understanding that organizational ineffectiveness and effectiveness are independent constructs, rather than opposite ends of a continuum, and that certain observable, quantifiable variables may be indicative of the level of ineffectiveness in an institution of higher education, we achieve two things. First, we are stirred from our complacency of believing an effective organization is not ineffective: the results of this research have indicated that some of the most effective institutions may concurrently be among the most ineffective. Second, the identification of variables indicative of institutional ineffectiveness permits us to take the first steps toward a conscious approach to the problem.

Better planning and better programs to reduce ineffectiveness can only be developed (consciously) through better understanding of the sources of that ineffectiveness. Since so much of adult and continuing education is provided through institutions of higher education, it behooves those committed to the provision of quality programs to examine the negative as well as the positive features of their institutions: to ask not just how to improve and strengthen the educational enterprise (effectiveness), but how to identify and minimize the harm and disservice done (ineffectiveness). This research represents a first step in helping faculty and administrators to better understand what to look for among the previously neglected negatives, and how to measure it.

References: Available from the author upon request.

ABSTRACT

INTERNATIONAL PERSPECTIVES ON INCREASING SUPPORT FOR CONTINUING EDUCATION

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Based on part of a large international study of societal influences on continuing education, this paper provides rationale, findings, and implications regarding increasing external support. Understanding societal influences on programs in other national settings has the heuristic value of helping us identify major influences and relationships and to ask productive planning and policy questions in our own service area. When mapping relationships, the most confidence was placed in generalizations that were cross validated from multiple sources such as case descriptions, literature review, social indicators, and critiques by experts. Widespread influences on participation include social change, stratification, and widespread beliefs regarding benefits. Influences on staffing include availability of volunteers and staff development opportunities. Influences on finance include appropriations and parent organization relations. General strategic planning was affected by cultural values and relations with other providers. Implications include: strategic planning should include substantial attention to contextual analysis, international perspectives should contribute to clarification of assumptions and asking productive policy questions about the local situation, and maps of societal influences help identify benefits valued by potential supporters.

INTERNATIONAL PERSPECTIVES ON INCREASING SUPPORT FOR CONTINUING EDUCATION

Increasing external support for adult continuing education is a fundamental and ongoing challenge for people who work in this field. This paper highlights the rationale, methods, findings and implications from part of a recent large cross-national study of major societal influences on typical local educational programs for adults (Knox, Knox, Savicevic, 1988). The main purpose of the paper is to explore ways to use an international perspective for greater attention to contextual analysis for continuing education planning in the United States. In forecasting, assumptions are the main influences, and the benefits of comparative education are heuristic rather than prescriptive.

Rationale

Understanding societal influences is important for several reasons. Throughout the world, most adult continuing education administrators are in power poor positions within a turbulent environment. Most administrators and program coordinators are concerned about societal influences, and are especially interested in increasing program support of various types. Included is support regarding participants, staff, funds, collaboration, and policies.

Recent writings relevant to strategic planning for adult education have emphasized the importance of monitoring major societal influences including past trends, present decisions, and projected future options (Callan, 1986; Keller, 1983; Simerly and Associates, 1987). Many definitions of leadership stress such a future and external orientation.

Increased attention to external societal influences should accompany our traditional emphasis in the United States on internal agency functioning and responsiveness to individual adult learners. In most other countries there is greater attention to societal context and collective values. Contextual analysis in the U.S. is often impeded because societal influences are complex, subtle, and usually include unexamined beliefs.

A cross-national comparative perspective mainly helps us understand ourselves and our own situation, as well as adding to our appreciation of educational programs for adults in other national settings which can help us identify the major influences and relationships on which to focus in our own service area (Knox, 1987).

For example, most citizen education programs depend on obtaining external support and subsidy, which is an unending task for program coordinators. This is illustrated by the recent experience with the National Issues Forum that conducts public meetings and study circles about domestic policy issues. A few years ago, in a middle size midwestern city, a former participant retired as a corporate executive and agreed to serve as a volunteer coordinator of the entire local program.

The program had no budget; resources were volunteer and in-kind. A community college and a library contributed staff assistance and facilities use. A national foundation contributed materials and staff development for coordinators. Interaction with celebrities such as former presidents and cabinet members was used to reward and inspire volunteers. Various community groups conducted study circles and encouraged participation in forum activities, in very decentralized ways. The crucial subsidy was the coordinator's time. In addition to a future transition to this successor, one concern was that the participants were predominantly middle class and mainly discussed issues with people much like themselves.

A contrast was provided by a center for political education in a southern state of the Federal Republic of Germany. Recognizing the historical differences that prompted government support for adult political education to encourage pluralism and democracy, there are several features of their approach that could be adapted to the National Issues Forum. Included are co-sponsorship of activities with various groups; emphasis on segments of the population least involved in politics (unemployed young people, immigrants, women, handicapped); and an intensive campaign "Politics in the

Market Place." This campaign included displays, presentations, discussions, media coverage, and follow-up with seminars and workshops for interested citizens and organizations.

Methods

Case coordinators who are experts in adult continuing education in a representative selection of countries helped prepare a uniform set of guidelines and procedures for preparation of case descriptions. Case coordinators and other local authors who were very familiar with the program they described, prepared brief descriptions of selected programs in their country.

Case descriptions of the program as a system included context, outcomes, process, and resources, along with commentary on positive societal influences that helped the program and negative influences that hindered the program. (economic, demographic, political, cultural, formal education, and relations with the parent organization and with other adult continuing education providers). All types of programs were included in the total project, but this paper focuses on literacy, agriculture, and citizenship programs.

The case descriptions from each country served as the focal point for analyzing multiple sources of information. Particular attention was given to decision areas for which contextual analysis would be useful, such as encouraging participation by adult learners, selecting staff and volunteers, and obtaining program funds. Another source was a literature review on the country and its educational programs for adults (Knox, 1987). Many additional writings were subsequently reviewed. The case descriptions were also reviewed by experts in comparative education and area studies.

The comparative analyses entailed mapping relationships. The most confidence was placed in generalizations about societal influences on adult continuing education programs that were cross validated from multiple sources. This allowed use of contrasting case examples and societal contexts to explore societal influences on programs, plans and policies. More than 150 case descriptions have been obtained from about 25 countries. Although each case description reflects program functioning in its national context, implications depend on conditions in the country in which conclusions are to be applied. The holistic character of the set of case descriptions contributes to this heuristic use. The comparative analysis identified similarities and differences to help recognize important relationships in one's own setting.

Findings

The subset of case descriptions which were analyzed for this paper concerned literacy, agriculture, and citizenship. These are program areas that typically require subsidy and external support, but concerns about lack of sufficient external support are expressed by most of the others as well. Acquisition of satisfactory participants, staff, and money is a major task that confronts most program coordinators. Many societal influences were identified.

Some societal influences were remote and affected other direct influences on program functioning. For example, the satisfactoriness of the national or regional economy typically affected government policies, priority for adult education, availability of external funds, and differential effects on adults at various levels of socioeconomic status. Practitioners tended to take satisfactory economic conditions for granted but to become more aware of this influence when poor economic conditions restricted program funding.

Another generalized influence was relations with the parent organization, which might on balance be positive or negative. This relationship affected especially planning, finance, staffing and participation.

Typical negative influences were perceived locks. Examples include: low governmental or societal priority for adult education which affects agency planning, inadequate or reduced external funding which constrains the agency budget, inadequate staff development opportunities which depresses staff performance, and lack of evidence of benefits (especially related to improved social mobility or power) which discourages participation.

The dramatic impact of widespread social change on adult continuing education was illustrated during the past two decades in the People's Republic of China. During the decade of turmoil of the so called "cultural revolution," much of the existing adult education effort was destroyed. Since then there has been a concerted effort to achieve four modernizations in agriculture, industry, defense, and science/technology. During this current period of rapid but selective transformation, adult continuing education is making an unprecedented contribution.

Following are examples of major and widespread societal influences on specific decision areas in various countries.

Participation - Three types of influences were reported in many cases and articles. They pertained to anticipated benefits, social stratification, and social change. Adults typically engage in educational activities in anticipation of specific benefits they value. Their personal sense of educational efficacy seems to be shaped by the program image regarding likely benefits to participants generally. Anticipated benefits can be very specific such as occupational advancement, or admission to further education, but can also be quite general such as acceptance in reference groups. Social stratification affects adults "life chances" composed of options and linkages (Dahrendorf, 1979). In most settings, extent of educative activity is positively associated with level of socioeconomic status. Higher status adults tend to have more external incentives and rewards for participation, as well as more preparation and optimism regarding success. One side benefit for adult continuing education during periods of deliberate modernization or rapid social change generally, is that it can stimulate some adults to become more optimistic about benefits of educational activity.

For example, some of the adult literacy programs in India have been plagued by widespread pessimism by less advantaged adults about how much literacy will help. In some parts of China, penalties for remaining illiterate have been used to counteract similar pessimism. More importantly, in China positive incentives for educational participation occur as diplomas are de-emphasized as requirements for occupational advancement of workers, and as farmers move toward a socialist commodity economy. In such instances, work and education are combined and the occupational benefits of learning activities become more widely recognized.

Staffing - A widespread issue was increasing the quality of instruction. Two of the major societal influences addressed this issue--attraction of able volunteers and provision of staff development opportunities. Many types of programs use volunteers, and their availability reflects supply of potential volunteers, competing opportunities to serve as volunteers, as well as the incentives that adult continuing education providers offer. One incentive is staff development opportunities.

In-service professional development activities constitute an important benefit for paid and volunteer staff. In addition to staff development activities conducted by the provider agency, in some service areas there are various opportunities available from other organizations such as universities and professional associations. Some providers use external staff development activities as a major ingredient in program success. Inadequate staff development opportunities were identified as major negative influences, such as in literacy programs in Saudi Arabia and agricultural extension programs in Cameroon. China has used staff development to compensate for an inadequate supply of well qualified adult education teachers.

Finance - As might be anticipated for subsidized programs, external appropriations and grants have major impacts on program functioning. Inadequate external financial support was a major negative influence on some programs. Parent organizations sometimes increase and sometimes decrease the severity of the resultant problem depending in part on how the adult education function is valued. One typical way of supplementing external financial support is by collaboration and provision of in-kind assistance (use of facilities, volunteer help, encouragement of participation, provision of materials) by enterprizes, educational institutions and other organizations such as associations, religious institutions, and libraries.

Planning - Strategic planning covers all of these decision areas and more as a provider agency reviews internal and external characteristics and influences in an effort to strengthen future efforts. Three major societal influences on strategic planning are relations with the parent organization, and with other providers, along with widespread cultural values. Some of these relationships were illustrated recently by Chinese adult education during a period of massive rapid social change. In addition to expanding the extent of adult education, the variety of providers was broadened. Formal preparatory education schools and universities tend to resist change, and besides they were expanding to the limits of their resources. Thus, parallel systems of adult education were established some of which granted comparable diplomas and degrees. Some used technology, such as the T.V. universities. Some were associated with enterprizes, and were paid for by allocating 1.5% of the enterprize budget to adult education. One innovation in the People's Republic of China has been encouragement of voluntary associations and private organizations to conduct adult education programs. The result has been an increasingly pluralistic effort with central policy and decentralized control. An interesting question during this transition period is the extent to which success depends on widely shared cultural values (Bellah and Associates, 1985).

Another way of conveying pertinent findings is by the following brief comparative analysis of literacy programs in the United States, Sweden and Canada. Increased priority for adult basic education in the United States during recent decades reflects general cultural values for literacy and education, and a generally positive image of literacy efforts and potential, along with concerns about negative influences of illiteracy on the economy and society generally. Federal appropriations have been constant during the past decade when support for other social programs was being reduced, and many states have increased their support. Typical local providers are public school systems or community college districts. Many such parent organizations have mixed views of adult basic education, which affects planning to diversify funding and some forms of collaboration. In addition to a small full time staff, a typical program has many part time staff members, whose career problems also reflect uncertain funding and mixed views by the parent organization.

Major influences on participation, other than limited finances, include the extent of the illiteracy problem, social change which is worsening the problem by raising the threshold of functional literacy, and widespread beliefs that literacy is generally beneficial. A negative influence is the reality that without other changes many new literates may still be unable to progress occupationally.

Analysis of adult literacy programs in Sweden suggest some useful implications for the U.S. High priority for Swedish adult education reflects national commitment to adult education as a vehicle for modernization and planned change, along with cultural values such as equity and national identity. Literacy programs help absorb immigrants, who constitute about half of adult basic education participants, as well as aim to reduce social class differences and increase life chances. Favorable economic conditions and ideological commitment to equity of opportunity and to democracy, are major contributors to the high priority for adult basic education, as reflected in national appropriations which are the main source of program funding. The broad national consensus regarding the importance of adult education reflects the many segments of Swedish society that value greater equity and democracy. How can such a national commitment to adult education in the United States be strengthened?

Support for adult basic education can also be strengthened locally. This is illustrated by the approach of some literacy programs in Canada. In one program a collaborative approach by school system and library, paid staff, volunteer tutors and the participants themselves had a strong neighborhood focus. The intended benefits were increased literacy for both individual self expression and social and political empowerment. Staff development was crucial to assist volunteer tutors who lived in

the same low income neighborhood as the participants. Participants helped produce educational materials as well as use what they learned for community problem solving. This community development approach to literacy education illustrates a way to strengthen local support.

Implications

Following are suggested implications from this study for adult educators in North America who want to use an international perspective to strengthen external support.

1. Recognize that strategic planning and the variables included in scanning and forecasting should be adapted to the contingencies of the local situation. The main benefit of an international perspective for decision makers is to enable them to recognize assumptions and to ask productive policy and planning questions for their own situation.
2. Strategic planning aims at planned change, not just admirable reports, so it is important to involve in the planning process the people who are to implement the plans.
3. Successful coordinators promote mutually beneficial exchanges between their provider agency and the external organizations and individuals whose cooperation they seek. Maps of societal influences help coordinators identify incentives and benefits that are valued by potential partners.
4. The diverse and somewhat transient nature of external support suggests the wisdom of deliberately diversifying external support to reduce vulnerability. There are many options including ongoing appropriations, special grants, in-kind contributions by collaborators, and volunteers. Planning for diversification is strategically sound because sometimes when budget reductions occur it is too late to compensate and the program sustains great damage.
5. The slogan "Think global and act local" captures several useful insights. An international perspective can provide the basis for advocating public policies that strengthen adult continuing education. However, it is also important to decentralize the effort so that it is responsive to local community conditions.
6. Many of the effective ways to strengthen internal and external support entail use of adult continuing education procedures for staff and collaborators as well as for the clientele.

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THE DECISION MAKING PROCESS IN ADULT AND COMMUNITY EDUCATION PROGRAMS: THE DIRECTOR AS DECISION MAKER

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Abstract

One hundred ninety five directors of adult and community education programs responded to a questionnaire which included 32 decisions potentially made by administrators. The research questions focused on the kinds of decisions made by adult and community education directors, the relationship of experience as a director to the types of decisions made, and the processes employed in decision making. Findings indicate a) that adult and community education directors are involved in making a wide variety of decisions, b) the specific decisions made by directors vary with years of experience in administration, c) that directors are relatively autonomous in making decisions, d) that superiors, students and community members are seldom consulted in decisions made by directors, and e) that program staff members provide the most frequently used source of outside input in directors' decision making.

THE DECISION MAKING PROCESS IN ADULT AND COMMUNITY EDUCATION PROGRAMS: THE DIRECTOR AS DECISION MAKER

Introduction

The organization and operation of adult and community education programs in Michigan, as in many other states, is often a marginal role when compared to what appears to be the central function of the school district; that of serving children and adolescents. Classes are scheduled to meet at times when the "regular" program is not using all of the facilities, adult and community education teachers are warned to put the classroom chairs back in their "regular" places when finished, and budgets of adult and community education programs are often the first to be cut when financial problems arise.

Little has been written, however, regarding the decision making process that adult and community education directors employ in their work. Do they operate in ways similar to other school administrators? Do they use administrative strategies that call on an understanding of how adults learn best? Do those adult and community directors with considerable experience make different administrative decisions than those with limited experience? These and a number of other questions relating to administrative decision making are the basis for this study. The information gathered through this study will be of use to those involved in planning and teaching in university graduate programs in adult and community education and educational administration, directors of adult and community education programs, and school administrators responsible for supervising adult and community education programs and directors.

Research Questions

The following research questions guided this inquiry:

1. What are the specific decisions made by adult and community education directors, and of what decision types are they?
2. What is the relationship between administrative experience and the types of decisions made by adult and community education directors?
3. What are the key influences on the decisions made by adult and community education directors?

Methodology

The population for the study was the adult and community education directors in the state of Michigan. All directors were employed by

public school districts and were identified as such by the State Department of Education.

A questionnaire was developed a) to collect basic information from these directors such as educational background, prior experience, size of program and the decision making model used in their district, b) to determine the specific decisions each director had made during the current school year from a list of 32 decisions in the areas of curriculum, liaison, program promotion, personnel, resources and facilities, and internal communication, and c) to identify the locus of each decision as to whether the decision was made by the director alone, in conjunction with others, in response to a directive, or because of a stated policy. The questionnaire was initially developed, revised and then field tested with two local directors of adult and community education programs. In addition, these two directors were interviewed to provide the basis for further instrument revision and development.

A questionnaire was sent to each of 327 directors of adult and community education programs. Four questionnaires were returned as undeliverable and 195 (60%) were completed and returned to the researchers. No attempt to follow up or otherwise solicit additional responses was made.

Data were analyzed using descriptive research techniques. Analyses were conducted for the total group level and for subgroups.

Findings

Table A shows those decisions made by at least 90% of all respondents and those decisions <u>not</u> made by at least 50% of the respondents. Three of the seven decisions made by the greatest number of respondents related to <u>program promotion</u>. Conversely, two of the four decisions identified by most of the respondents as <u>not</u> being made were related to <u>personnel matters</u>.

<u>Table A - Decisions Made vs Decisions Not Made by Majority of Respondents</u>

DECISION MADE	DECISION TYPE	% MAKING THE DECISION
Student recruitment strategy to use	Program Promotion	96.4
What classes to cancel	Curricular	94.9
Advertising strategy to use	Program Promotion	94.9
Whether to advertise	Program Promotion	94.9
What classes to offer	Curricular	93.9
Whether to purchase equipment	Resources/Facilities	91.3
When/how to communicate with staff	Internal Communication	90.8

Table A (cont.) - Decisions Made vs Decisions Not Made by Majority of Respondents

DECISION NOT MADE	DECISION TYPE	% NOT MAKING THE DECISION
Develop personnel disciplinary policy	Personnel	74.4
To acquire new facilities	Resources/ Facilities	63.1
Set student exam policy	Curricular	59.0
To dismiss a staff member	Personnel	56.4

Of the 32 decisions used in the questionnaire, only 4 were identified by a majority of respondents as decisions not made by them, yet 27 were identified by a majority as decisions made as part of their work. Adult and community education directors make a wide variety of decisions as a part of their job.

When high experience directors (15 or more years of administrative experience) are compared with low experience directors (less than 5 years experience), eight of the 32 decisions used in the study are identified as decisions that are made considerably more often by one group than the other. These eight decisions are shown in Table B. The criteria used for identifying these eight decisions was that one group had to differ from the other by at least 10% in the selection rate.

Table B - Effect of Experience on Decision Making

DECISION	LOW EXPERIENCE DIRECTORS (% selecting)	HIGH EXPERIENCE DIRECTORS (% selecting)	DIFFERENCE IN %
To reassign staff member	54.7	71.1	+16.4
To discipline a staff member	50.9	64.4	+13.5
To dismiss a staff member	32.1	44.4	+12.3
Set wages, rates, salaries	79.2	91.1	+11.9
Expand an existing program	75.5	86.7	+11.2
To communicate with students	94.3	82.2	-12.1
To develop personnel disciplinary policy	30.2	17.8	-12.4
Selecting a new textbook	88.7	67.2	-21.5

The greatest difference is seen in "selecting a new textbook" which was selected by 88.7% of the low experience directors and only 67.2% of the high experience directors - a difference of 21.5%. The second greatest difference between the two experience groups occurred with the decision "to reassign a staff member" which was selected by 71.1% of the high experience directors and only 54.7% of the low experience directors - a difference of 16.4%.

Five of the eight decisions that indicated large differences between high experience and low experience directors showed that the greater number of decisions were made by the high experience directors.

Table C shows the locus of the directors' decisions.

Table C - Locus of Decisions

LOCUS		% OF TOTAL DECISIONS
Director alone		43.7%
In conjunction w/ others		49.1%
w/ Staff	33.9%	
w/ superior	10.5%	
w/ Community	2.8%	
w/ Students	2.0%	
Directive from superior		1.7%
According to stated policy		5.5%
		100.00%

Most of the decisions made by adult and community education directors are made alone and without the assistance of others or the decisions are made in conjunction with their staff. These two categories reflect the locus of the decision for over 77% of the decisions that are made. When those decisions made in conjunction with their superior are added, 88.1% of all decisions are included. Decisions are seldom made in conjunction with the students or the community - only a total of 4.8% of the decisions. Institutional policy is the basis for under 6% of the decisions that are made and less than 2% of the decisions are made because of a directive from a superior.

Discussion

The data suggest that there may be a discrepancy between the literature in the field of adult and community education and administrative practice. The emphasis in decision making can be seen as a response to the marginality of adult and community education programs and program visibility rather than a response to adult learners. Is it possible for an adult and community education director to administer a program with decisions that reflect the needs

of adult learners if such decision making is not consistent with the decisions used in child and adolescent-focused schools which are the home for most all adult and community education programs? In other words, would a director of an adult and community education program make different decisions if the program were under the auspices of a community center, church, trade union, etc?

If the adult and community education director is as autonomous a decision maker as the data reveal, receiving little direction from superiors, why aren't decisions a more participatory effort in conjunction with students and the community? Maybe being autonomous as a decision maker is not supportive of promoting participation. Or, are the adult and community education directors less autonomous in their decision making then they perceive themselves to be?

Additionally, adult and community education directors should examine their understanding of the concept of collaboration since only infrequently is a decision made in conjunction with their superior, the students, or the community, yet, the data indicate considerable collaboration with staff. Is it possible to be collaborative with one group and yet not be collaborative with another? Or, is collaboration with staff something that is perceived by the directors yet not apparent in practice.

Finally, it appears that school districts might want to examine their policy statements to determine if the unique characteristics of adult and community education programs are adequately reflected in such policies.

TITLE: The Perceptions And Attitudes of School Superintendents Toward Adult Illiteracy

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ABSTRACT: Organizers of adult literacy coalitions and projects rely on an accurate assessment of local leadership to effectively develop literacy programs. This study examined the perceptions held by school superintendents in Indiana about adult illiteracy and programs designed to address this problem. A total of 179 superintendents responded to a 30 item questionnaire. More than 1 out of 5 superintendents have been personally involved in some way with literacy programs. Approximately 66% of the school corporations represented provide some type of adult education. The study examines how important superintendents consider the problem of adult illiteracy to be and where they feel leadership and funding for the response to the problem should originate. The results of the survey suggest that superintendents appear to be willing to cooperate with local literacy coalitions and adult literacy programs.

The Perceptions And Attitudes of School Superintendents Toward Adult Illiteracy

Introduction

What kinds of research information related to adult functional illiteracy are most important to have in order to do something about the problem on a statewide basis? In Indiana, a group of knowledgeable leaders working on the problem said that one of the top five research questions was "What are the perceptions and attitudes of school superintendents regarding literacy?" It is not hard to understand why they regarded such information as important. As the chief executive officers of the public education systems throughout the state, superintendents control a major portion of the state's educational resources. They have responsibility for programs which might prevent adult illiteracy. And they have great potential for contributing to the problem's solution and influencing others to do the same.

There are obvious hitches, however. The fact of adult illiteracy would seem to raise sensitive questions about the "preventative" performance of superintendents and their school systems in teaching the young. And, teaching the young may dominate their attention and their professional commitment. So the question is an important one. How do the superintendents really feel about the adult literacy problem? Can they be expected to help in solving the problem? How responsible do they feel? Are they sensitive about the implied criticism of school programs which apparently fail many youthful literacy learners? Thus, this study was developed to answer some of these questions.

Research Question

The primary purpose of this study was to determine the attitudes and perceptions of school superintendents in Indiana regarding adult illiteracy. The specific questions that were examined included:

1. How significant do school superintendents consider the adult illiteracy problem to be?

2. To what extent do they feel public schools are responsible for the problem of adult illiteracy?

3. Do superintendents think that all adults should be given the opportunity to read?

4. What entity should be responsible for funding adult literacy programs?

5. What degree of cooperation can be expected from superintendents and school boards in the formation of programs to solve the adult illiteracy problem?

These questions are important to the advocates and organizers of adult literacy programs who find that an assessment of community resources and support is necessary in the development of such programs. Schools are a critical link in the establishment of broad community support for adult literacy programs. The leadership of school superintendents will make a significant difference in the strength that the school system provides to adult literacy programs.

This study can be used by organizers of adult literacy programs in two ways. First, it provides an overview of the perceptions and attitudes that they will encounter among school superintendents. Second, it can be used to demonstrate to reticent school superintendents the degree of support for adult literacy programs among their peers.

Research Methodology

A thirty item questionnaire was developed to examine the main question of this study and the five subsidiary questions. The first four items gathered data about the size of the school, geographic area, composition of school board, and length of time that the superintendent had served in her/his position. Items 5-7 inquired about the types of adult education programs operated by the school corporation and the involvement of the superintendent in adult literacy programs. Items 8-9 asked the respondents to estimate the rate of illiteracy among adults in their area. Items 10-30 focused on the perceptions and attitudes about the significance of adult illiteracy, source of leadership and funding, and the involvement of the school corporation in addressing the problem of adult illiteracy. These 20 items used a Likert response scale.

The questionnaire was distributed to all 298 school superintendents in the state. The questionnaire was accompanied by a letter from a prominent school superintendent, who was a member of the Indiana Adult Literacy Coalition, urging the respondents to complete the survey. A self addressed envelope was enclosed.

Data from the returned questionnaires was analyzed using frequency tables, cross tabulations, and descriptive statistics. In addition, extensive charts were created for comparative analysis.

Summary of Findings

Background Data

The survey was completed by 179 respondents for a 61% response rate. More than two-thirds of the respondents (68%) were from school corporations that served rural districts, 26% served urban areas (containing a city of 5,000 or more) and 6% were from metropolitan areas (containing a city of 50,000 or more). The mean number of students in the school corporations was 3,039. Eighty six percent of the school boards were elected, 12% were appointed and 2% were a mixture of elected and appointed members. The mean time that the superintendent had served in his/her current position was 6.8 years. This profile would appear to be representative of school corporations, boards, and superintendents throughout Indiana.

Adult Education Programs

It seemed appropriate to determine the involvement of school corporations in adult education programs, as well as, the personal involvement of school superintendents in adult literacy. There were 66% of the school corporations that were engaged in some type of adult education program. Fifty percent of the corporations had GED preparation classes, 46% operated ABE classes, 39% had non-credit continuing education courses, 21% offered adult high school classes, 17% provided adult literacy tutoring, and 18% offered other courses most of which were vocational courses or were programs conducted by a post-secondary institution in classrooms provided by the corporation. A mean of 323 adults were enrolled in the programs offered by the corporations.

Twenty percent of the superintendents were personally involved in some type of adult literacy program or activity. This involvement included being a tutor, organizing an adult literacy program, serving on adult literacy coalitions or advisory groups, and making public presentations about adult illiteracy.

The researchers projected that there would be a difference in the responses to items 10-30 between those respondents who had been involved in adult literacy programs and those who had not. A comparison of responses to these items was made by dividing respondents into two groups and performing a frequency distribution for each group. This was done to determine if it would be worthwhile to conduct an analysis of variance. There was less than a 3% difference in responses between the two groups to items 10-30 and therefore further analysis was not made.

Significance of Adult Illiteracy

A series of three questions were asked to determine if the respondents perceived adult illiteracy to be a significant problem. The questions were stated exactly the same except for the fact that one asked about the significance to the United States, a second referred to Indiana, and a third referred to their local school corporation area. Combining the responses on the Likert scale that were on the agreement side, a total of 84% agreed with the statement for the United States, 79% agreed with the statement for Indiana, and 58% agreed with the statement for their school corporation area. These results would seem to indicate that respondents perceive the problem of illiteracy to be significant in a general sense. This is demonstrated by the stronger agreement for U.S. and Indiana questions. However, respondents do not perceive it to be as significant a problem in their local area.

Two related items were presented in the survey. One item stated that "Adult illiteracy is a significant threat to the economy of the U.S." and a second stated that "Adult illiteracy is a significant threat to the productivity of U.S. business." Seventy five percent agreed with the statement that it was a threat to the economy and seventy seven percent agreed that it was a threat to productivity of business. This is a lower amount of agreement than was obtained to the statement that "Adult illiteracy is a significant problem to the United States." The low rate of agreement may be due to the fact that respondents considered the term "threat" as too strong a word to use or possibly respondents see illiteracy as a broader issue than the economic problems it creates. Regardless of the lower rate of agreement, the response to both items reinforces the fact that superintendents consider adult illiteracy to be a major problem for the United States.

Responsibility For Adult Illiteracy

There were two items that addressed the issue of responsibility for the fact that adult illiteracy is a problem. The first statement was "Adult illiteracy reflects negatively upon public educational systems." Seventy one percent of the superintendents agreed with this statement. This would appear to indicate that respondents saw public education as one of the agents responsible for the problem. In order to determine the extent to which they felt that national efforts to alert the public to the problem reflected negatively on the schools, an item stated "The state and national adult literacy campaigns are a direct or implied criticism of the public education system." Forty percent agreed with this statement while 36% disagreed with the statement. This response raises the possibility that superintendents are displeased with publicity of the awareness campaigns. However, given the strong majority who felt that the problem reflected negatively on the education system it could be that many respondents feel that the implication is justified. Unfortunately, the questionnaire did not follow up with an item that would have determined if respondents felt it was fair for the campaigns to make this implication.

The respondents acknowledged that it is possible to teach children to read and compute. Seventy two percent agreed with the statement "All individuals (except the mentally disabled) can be taught to read and compute as children." Thus, the majority of respondents would not attempt to reduce blame for adult illiteracy lying with the educational system by stating that it is not possible to produce literate children. In other words, since all children can learn to read and compute, it follows that there is some deficiency in the educational system that results in their not becoming literate before leaving the educational system.

Most Effective Leadership

The respondents overwhelmingly agree that adults should be given the opportunity to learn how to read and compute. There were 93% of the respondents who agreed with the statement "All adults who have not learned to read

and/or compute as children should be given the opportunity to do so as adults."

If adults should be given the opportunity to become literate, then who should take the leadership in addressing this need? There were three items presented in the questionnaire in an attempt to determine the answer to this question. One stated "Adult illiteracy can be most effectively addressed if there is active federal level leadership." The other two statements were the same except that the words "state" and "local" were substituted for "federal". Forty two percent agreed that adult illiteracy could be most effectively addressed at the federal level, 78% agreed that it could be addressed at the state level, and 63% agreed that it could be addressed at the local level. This would seem to indicate that the respondents feel that state leadership would be most effective in addressing the problem of adult illiteracy.

Funding For Literacy Programs

Another question that the survey was designed to answer was where funding for adult literacy programs should originate. There were four items related to this question. The first item that dealt with this issue stated: "The federal government should provide more funds to deal with adult illiteracy." Two other items varied this statement by substituting "state of Indiana" and "school corporation" in the place of federal government. Sixty two percent agreed that the federal government should provide more funds, 76% agreed that the state should provide more funds, and 33% agreed that their school corporation should provide more funds. Thus, it would appear that the respondents look toward the state not only for leadership in addressing the problem but also in funding the problem. However, it is important to note that 33% felt that school corporations should provide more funds. Another item addressed the question of whether business and industry should provide more funds to deal with adult illiteracy. A slight majority (56%) agreed with this item. Perhaps this indicates some interest in developing partnerships with business and industry, particularly for purposes of funding adult literacy initiatives.

Responsibility For Adult Literacy Programs

The final question posed by this study was what degree of responsibility and cooperation could be expected from school boards in dealing with adult literacy. Eighty percent of the respondents agreed that their school boards would cooperate with local literacy coalitions, 51% agreed that their school board would be willing to operate more programs, and 17% agreed that their boards would be willing to provide funding for programs. These results suggest that local literacy coalitions would probably be successful in getting cooperation from school boards in the development of local programs. That is, increases in local programming may be more likely if the school is working with a local coalition rather than expected to develop such programs alone.

Conclusions

The results of the study appear to support the following conclusions:

1. School superintendents in Indiana perceive adult literacy to be a major problem.

2. Many superintendents have been personally involved in addressing the problem, approximately one in five at the time of the study.

3. Superintendents do see adult literacy as reflecting negatively upon public education systems. Approximately two-thirds said as much. However, less than half saw adult literacy campaigns as a direct or implied criticism of public education. The evidence seems to support the proposition that they are more inclined to be open and cooperative than defensive and uncooperative.

4. Superintendents agree wholeheartedly that "adults who have not learned to read and/or compute as children should be given the opportunity to do so as adults." That statement received the strongest agreement rating in the study. In a related item, many of them (but not a majority) disagreed that all individuals an be taught to read and compute as children. One can conclude that these educators are firmly convinced of the present and future need for adult literacy instruction.

5. The superintendents do not believe that funding for adult literacy programs should come from school budgets, but they do believe that school boards are willing to support school cooperation with local literacy coalitions and organizations to promote adult literacy programs and to operate programs. School leaders appear to be willing to help in addressing the problem, but not necessarily willing to see themselves as having sole responsibility for its existence or solution.

6. Superintendents feel that the state has the primary leadership and funding responsibilities for addressing the adult literacy problem.

The results of this study are significant for state and local adult literacy leaders on several counts. The study suggests that superintendents and school boards are more approachable than might otherwise be assumed. State and local coalitions should find that encouraging. On the other hand, the study warns such coalitions away from expecting funding to come from the school budget. All in all, the responses on the different items appear to provide the kind of information which can be used to bring the school leaders "on board" in state and local adult literacy initiatives. In fact, the study instrument might well be a tool for local leadership attitude analysis as a first step in securing the involvement of such leaders.

Roles and Methods of Educators in Building Leadership Skills and Attitudes

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Abstract

Leadership is a key ingredient in community organizations. Recent writers indicate there is an increased demand for community leaders (Kellerman, 1984), that organizations are responding with programs (Rossing, 1987), but that the research base is very inadequate (Thullen et al., 1986).

Given the diversity in educational approaches used to develop community leadership a greater understanding of their unique contributions is essential. The research base in this are is especially limited.

A 1987 statewide study conducted by Wisconsin Cooperative Extension Service sought to investigate the leadership development of individuals who had recently performed in a leadership position assisted by Cooperative Extension. The study generated quantitative and qualitative data. This paper examines and discusses three sets of leader perceptions: (1) types of Extension assistance to leaders, (2) Extension's influence on leadership change and (3) future educational methods. Similarities and differences among four leader groups are explained. Secondary data analysis was conducted using simple statistical methods to identify patterns.

Leaders identified three main forms of assistance provided by Extension: assistance in performance of the role, providing information to use in the role and advice in carrying out the role. The sources of influence on leadership change identified most often included the county Extension agent and the experience of being involved in a leadership role. There were clear patterns showing the major sources of influence for each leader group. Preferences for future delivery methods included classes, workshops, group sessions; project or group experiences; printed information; and professional advice or consultation. Several methods with moderate preference should be viewed for future potential use.

Similarities and differences in assistance, influence and preference for future methods are explained by exploration of community organization contexts and abilities of Extension staff. Recommendations for strengthened educational programs, staff development and enhanced understanding of Cooperative Extension's multli-faceted leadership development role are included.

Roles and Methods of Educators in Building Leadership Skills and Attitudes

- by Marma McIntee and Boyd Rossing -

PROBLEM

Leadership is a key ingredient in community organizations. Due to increased demand for innovative social problem solving (Kanter, 1980), there is an increased demand for community leaders (Kellerman, 1984). Organizations are responding to the demand with leadership programs (Rossing, 1987a) however, one finds that efforts are inadequate. Research in the management area is emerging on unique learnings available from different types of experience, from role models and mentors and from formal training. Though comparisons of educational modes are mentioned in community leadership literature (Rossing, 1987a) little substantive research on this topic is available.

PURPOSE

The purpose of this paper is to examine and discuss three sets of leader perceptions: (1) types of assistance Extension provides to leaders; (2) ways Extension influenced changes in leadership skills, attitudes and participation; and (3) educational methods Extension should emphasize in the future. The paper will describe and seek to explain similarities and differences in these perceptions for four leader groups: Presidents of County Extension Homemaker Councils, County Forage Council Board Members, Presidents and Vice Presidents of County 4-H leader Association Executive Boards and Lake District Commissioners. Explanations will be explored with regard to community organization contexts and abilities of Extension staff. Recommendations will be presented.

DATA SOURCE AND ANALYSIS

Source of Data - Leadership Impact Study

The Cooperative Extension Service (C.E.S) plays a significant educational role in helping community organizations and their leaders. Recently, Wisconsin C.E.S. initiated a statewide evaluation of leadership development programming impacts. The data for this paper was extracted from this study. The mail survey sample for this analysis consisted of 151 leaders (75 also completed telephone interviews).

Characteristics of Leaders

Across the four groups 48% were male and 52% were female. Over 75% of the respondents in the four groups were between the ages of 30 and 60. The average age ranged from forage members (34) and 4-H officers (40) as the youngest to lake commissioners (52) and Extension Homemakers (52) as the oldest. Slightly over 22% of respondents in the four groups completed an education at the high school level or lower and 20% had completed college or a higher graduate degree. Nearly 93% of the leaders had had a moderate amount or much Extension contact within the past 2 years. Of the leaders in the four groups 88% had been in the position at least one and a half years.

Approach to Analysis

For the purpose of this paper a secondary data analysis was conducted to identify similarities and differences in educational delivery, influences and preferences by the four leader groups. The analysis was exploratory and simple statistics were engaged (e.g. chi square) to identify patterns. Additional analysis may be warranted at a later date.

LEADERSHIP CONTEXT

The primary purpose of this section is to develop an understanding of the

community organizational context of these groups and to describe Extension staff ability in the area of leadership education programming. These background considerations will form the basis for explanations of similarities and differences in educational approaches cited by the leaders.

Organization, Leader Role and Extension Affiliation

Extension Affiliation. The four leader groups selected for this paper provide a sampling of community leadership roles and organizations found in rural communities. Each exemplifies the programming efforts of one of the four program areas of Wisconsin Cooperative Extension: Family Living Programs, 4-H Youth Programs, Ag-Agribusiness Programs and Community, Natural Resources and Economic Development Programs.

Nature of the Organization

Among the four groups there is a great variation in the nature of the organization, the complexity of structure and roles, and meeting frequency. The Extension Homemaker organization is more highly structured than the other groups. The 4-H County Leaders Association and the Lake District Commissions are structured organizations, but are not as complex. The Forage Councils are more informally structured.

Although each of the groups provide research and educational information to members, each group provides this information for different purposes, e.g. home, youth, family and community development or promotion of economic and agricultural development or environmental protection.

Selected Leaders. The leaders contacted for the study were drawn from the local executive body of each type of organization. All of the executive bodies meet at least monthly and more often during seasonal periods when organizational events are most active.

Extension Staff Abilities. Leadership education has been a primary effort for the Cooperative Extension Service for decades. In the past, Extension has provided leadership education through a variety of delivery methods, but each program area has evolved a somewhat different set of approaches to leadership development ranging from formal to informal and technical to process emphasis (Rossing, 1987a). Recently, new approaches to intensive leadership development have begun to emerge (Miller & Rossing, 1988). Increasing interest in leadership education has drawn attention to two concerns: 1) that Extension leadership development programs are based on "limited and, at times'outdated' social science research" (Thullen et al., 1986). and 2) that professionals are trained in technical disciplines with limited opportunities to acquire social science education, thus, in some states a technical emphasis prevails in leadership education (Miller & Rossing, 1988).

EXTENSION'S ASSISTANCE TO LEADERS

To determine the specific types of assistance provided by Extension to leaders of the four groups they were asked to check any of 8 possibilities listed in the mail questionnaire. The results identified three main forms of assistance for all leader groups: **assisting the leader in the on-going performance of the role** (66%), **providing information the leader could use in their role** (64%), and **advising the leader on how to carry out the role** (51%).

The percentages of three items were identified as significantly different for the leader groups. They were: providing **group instruction related to the role** ($p < .05$), **encouraged to assume the role** ($p < .01$), and **selected for the role** ($p < .05$).* For the item providing **group instruction related to the role**

*Selected for the role was not an option on the Lakes Commissioners questionnaire.

Extension Homemakers had a higher percentage than Forage Council members, Lake Commissioners or 4-H Officers. For **encouraged to assume the role** and **selected for the role**, Extension Homemakers and 4-H officers had higher percentages than the other two groups.

In attempting to explain these results, one could speculate that the top three rated forms of assistance were often associated with more technical or indepth information. This type of information is best obtained through one-on-one contacts with Extension professionals on a day-to-day basis.

For **providing group instruction related to the role** the higher percentage for Extension Homemakers could be a result of the organization's history of emphasis on group instruction. The Lake Commissioners and Forage council rely more on one-on-one professional consultation. Although the 4-H organization relies on group instruction, 4-H officers may not obtain the kind of assistance they need to carry out this role through group instruction, but through other forms of assistance. It should be noted that group instruction was cited by no more than 35% within any of the leader groups.

The higher percentages shown by Extension Homemakers and 4-H officers for **encouraged to assume the role** and **selected for the role** could be a result of the highly interactive networking systems established in the two organizations and the close relationships between the agent and the organizations. In addition, both of these organizations have some formal emphasis on leadership development and training. This is not necessarily the case for the Lake Commissions or the Forage Councils.

EXTENSION AND OTHER SOURCES OF INFLUENCE ON LEADERSHIP CHANGE

A major part of the Leadership Impact Study was the determination of Extension's influence on important leadership dimensions. Sources of influence on changes on leadership skills, attitudes and participation were explored through telephone interviews with a sub-set of leaders. This paper discusses six of the identified influences across the groups. A rating of none, low, moderate or high was assigned to each influence frequency score.

When this data was analyzed, the influences with the highest percentages for the moderate to high rating across the four groups included **agent influence** and the **experience of being involved in role-related activities**. Extension Homemakers were influenced most by the **experience of being involved**. 4-H officers cited the **experience of being involved** and the influence of the **agent** most often. The **agent** was clearly the major influence on leadership changes for forage council board members. The influence of **meetings, workshops and conventions** was cited most by lake commissioners. These findings document vividly the differences in Extension approaches to leadership development for different clientele and show the ways different clientele perceive and value Extension's contributions. Across the leader groups less than a quarter of the leaders typically recorded a moderate to high score for the influence of information/materials.

The percentages of two influence items were identified as significantly different across the leader groups. They were **agent** ($p < .01$) and **experience of being involved** ($p < .01$). The percentage of respondents identifying the **agent** influence with a moderate to high rating was 92% for the forage council members and 65% for 4-H officers, but below 20% for the other 2 groups. The highest percentage (80%) for the moderate to high rating of **experience of being involved** was identified by 4-H officers. Extension Homemakers (50%) also frequently registered **experience** as an influence. The percentage for forage council members and lake commissioners was below 25%.

The importance of the **agent's** influence on leaders may be due to the

extent of organization dependence on the agent. Forage Councils require agent expertise when developing demonstration plots and when communicating information on the economic and technological advantages of new forage practices. The implementation of 4-H programs, with many young members, is a complex undertaking where agent organizational expertise is drawn on. Even though other leader groups may look to the local Extension agent for advice on technical information or procedures, their reliance on the agent may not be as great.

The strong emphasis on the value of **experience** for 4-H officers might also be explained by the nature of the program. A long history of "learning by doing" is still the cornerstone of the 4-H program. The nature of this philosophy encourages, not only youth, but the adult leaders to become involved with the information and materials and the people in the program. 4-H provides many leadership opportunities. This is also the case, to a lesser extent, with the Extension Homemaker organization. The emphasis on "learning by doing" and the number of opportunities are less evident in forage councils and lake commissions.

PREFERENCES FOR FUTURE EXTENSION LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT

An important objective of the study was to provide information to guide future leadership development programming of Wisconsin Cooperative Extension. Several leadership development methods were presented to the leaders and they were asked which ones Cooperative Extension should emphasize in the future. The methods recommended by nearly 6 out of 10 leaders in all four groups were: **class, workshop, group session** (79%), experience in a project or group (68%), **printed information, reading materials** (66%), and **professional advice or consultation** (58%).

Percentages of three methods were identified as significantly different for the leader groups. They were: **professional advice or consultation** ($p < .05$), **conversations with family, friends or associates** ($p < .01$) and computer programs ($p < .1$). For the method **professional advice or consultation** Extension Homemakers had a lower percentage than the other three groups. For conversations with **family, friends or associates** 4-H officers had a higher percentage than the other three groups. Forage leaders were most likely to select **computer programs.**

Conjecture may suggest that **professional advice or consultation** is associated with technical or indepth information making such consultation more important to lake district commissioners and forage council members due to the nature of their roles. However, the Extension Homemaker organizations and the 4-H program are similar in nature. The major difference may occur in the view of the agent role as a professional and/or the dependence of the leaders upon the agent for the functioning of the organization. It appears that the Extension Homemaker organization is more independent in its functioning, therefore placing less emphasis on professional advice.

The nature of the organization's philosophy may explain 4-H leaders interest in **conversations with family, friends and associates.** The program is designed to involve total families in the 4-H experience. One could assume that by the time one is selected as a 4-H County Leader Association officer, the commitment to 4-H as a family program is strong. It would seem only natural to include this method for future use if one valued the family approach to 4-H programming. The other three organizations do not emphasize this philosophy as much as 4-H. The proclivity of Forage leaders for computer based education is best explained by the linkage of computer aids to agricultural decision-making already established for these farmers in other Extension programs.

Any discussion of future delivery methods must draw attention to the fact that the four top methods identified by the leaders were those traditionally used in Extension programming. Therefore, leaders would be more familiar with these methods and feel more comfortable in selecting them for future delivery. Several methods with moderate percentages are worth mentioning due to the potential for effective and efficient delivery of leadership programs. Some of the methods may be specific to selected leader groups. The use of **videotapes** (48%) received the highest percentage overall of this group of methods. 4-H officers (54%) were especially interested in this method. 4-H officers also had preference for the use of **self help support groups** (46%) and conversations with **family, friends and associates** (49%). It may be important for staff involved with 4-H programming to look seriously at the potential for these methods. Finally, **computer programs** were selected by Forage Council members (48%) as a future preference. This new technology is used more often in Agricultural programs and may have potential for leadership development.

CONCLUSIONS

This analysis further substantiates the programming efforts of Extension in meeting the leadership needs of four diverse groups of community leaders. It also identifies a challenge for the development of future programs and the use of delivery methods to fill gaps which may now exist. The following conclusions and recommendations should stimulate further discussion.

1. Community leaders served by Extension are all exposed to a similar array of educational approaches. However, emphasis given to different approaches varies widely across different leader groups. Differences in educational approaches are influenced by available expertise and research base of county and state Extension staff and organization needs more than by preferences of leaders.
2. Leadership changes were primarily influenced by 2 sources: 1) agent consultations and modeling and 2) experience in role-related activities. The differences are somewhat due to degree of contact with Extension and to the quality and number of available leadership experiences.
3. Leader's preferences for future leadership education approaches are remarkably similar in light of differences in context and educational experience. Top preferences tend to accord with Extension's traditional educational methods. Interest in new methods of leadership education is increasing despite lack of current availability.

RECOMMENDATIONS

1. Extension should recognize different clientele situations through tailored programs and educational approaches and capitalize on commonalities through strengthened coordination across programs.
2. New educational methods for leadership development warrant investigation and use.
3. Results should be used to enhance understanding of Cooperative Extension's multi-faceted leadership development role across staff in all Extension program areas and to strengthen the leadership development competencies of Extension staff.

REFERENCES

Available on request from either author.

DROPOUT IN ADULT LITERACY PROGRAMS: AN APPLICATION OF TINTO'S MODEL OF ATTRITION

by

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Abstract

This study sought to determine the applicability, and explanatory power of Tinto's model of attrition as modified and applied to an inner-city adult literacy program. Of particular interest was the identification of those variables which provide the most explanatory power in distinguishing between completers, persisters, and dropouts. The study employed a longitudinal design with two data collections during the academic year 1986-87. Of the 115 subjects who were initially interviewed via a telephone survey, 59 were subsequently interviewed eight months later. Data were collected on four sets of variables: background characteristics, initial and subsequent academic and social integration, initial and subsequent program and goal commitments, and withdrawal decisions. Through factor analysis and discriminant analysis fourteen variables were identified which explained 75.86 percent of the variance in completion, persistence, and withdrawal behavior.

DROPOUT IN ADULT LITERACY PROGRAMS: AN APPLICATION OF TINTO'S MODEL OF ATTRITION

Studies of attrition assist practitioners in understanding the interaction between individuals and the social system of the learning program that lead to dropout. However, one of the most troubling aspects of the research is the identification of the most relevant variables which contribute to the variance observed between completers, persisters, and dropouts. The purpose of this study was to determine the applicability, and explanatory power of a theoretical model for residential college students developed by Tinto (1975) as revised and applied to a large nonresidential, inner-city adult literacy population.

Research Questions

The study addressed two research questions:

1. To what extent do the variables defined by Tinto's model facilitate an explanation of attrition in adult literacy?
2. What variables defined by Tinto's model provide the most explanatory power in distinguishing between completers, persisters, and dropouts?

Theoretical Framework

Tinto (1975) developed a longitudinal model of dropout which focuses upon the specification of the conditions under which dropout occurs (e.g., academic and social malintegration) and upon the delineation of the student's background characteristics that account for the variation of differing types of dropout behavior among differing individuals.

Tinto argues that a positive causal relationship exists between institutional characteristics and dropout. Since dropout is the outcome of a multidimensional process involving the interaction between the individual and the institution; it is the characteristics of the institution--its resources, facilities, structural arrangements, and composition of its members--that place limits upon the development and integration of individuals within the institution and that lead to the development of academic and social climate, or "presses", with which the individual must contend.

Individuals enter academic institutions with a variety of attributes and family backgrounds each of which has direct and indirect effects upon performance in the academic program. More importantly, these background characteristics and individual attributes also influence the development of the educational expectations and commitments the individual brings into the program. It is these goal and institutional commitments that are both important predictors of and reflections of the person's experiences and his/her disappointments and satisfactions in the academic environment. Given individual characteristics, prior experiences, and commitments, the model argues that it is the individual's integration into the academic and social

systems of the program that most directly relates to his/her continuance in that program and which lead to new levels of commitment.

Frequently, events in the social system external to the academic program can affect integration within the more limited social and academic systems of the program. It is suggested that those effects will be best observed through the person's changing evaluations of his/her commitments to the goal of program completion and to the institution in which he/she is participating.

Research Design

The study employed a longitudinal design with two data collections during the academic year 1986-87. The 183 students attending an adult literacy program in a non-residential community college were contacted during the second week of the fall term and asked to participate in the study. Of those 148 (80%) who agreed to be interviewed, 115 (77.7% of those who agreed) were successfully contacted and interviewed via a telephone survey.

The survey instrument was comprised largely of five-item factorially derived Likert-response scale statements adapted from the research conducted by Pascarella et al. (1983). Pascarella et al. (1983) tested the applicability of Tinto's model to a commuter college setting. With only minor modifications, the questionnaire items they developed appeared to be applicable to an adult literacy setting. The telephone survey assessed students' expectations about a variety of aspects of the adult literacy program experience, and collected selected background information. After eight months, 59 students (51% of those initially interviewed) were successfully contacted and administered a follow-up telephone survey. The follow-up survey was largely adapted from the original survey, but did include some new items, such as information about the drop-out decision. Of the 59 subjects included in the final sample, 45.8 percent completed, 23.7 percent dropped out, and 30.5 percent persisted in the program.

The Sample

The initial sample of 115 subjects was comprised of a majority of women (72%) and minorities (85%). Nearly all of them were unemployed (98.3%) and a majority (61%) were receiving public assistance. A series of twelve chi-square and seven t-tests were computed to test for differences in responses between the 59 subjects who constituted the final sample and the 56 subjects who were not interviewed during the follow-up stage of the study. These tests showed no significant differences (at the $P < .05$ level) between the two groups, except: the follow-up group had significantly higher income and were older than the initial group. Of the 59 subjects included in the final sample, 27 (45.8%) completed the program (i.e., received a GED or passed an entry test to attend a training program) 14 (23.7%) dropped

out, and 18 (30.5%) persisted in the program.

Variables

Four different constructs were identified: 1. background characteristics (i.e., family background, individual attributes, years of schooling); 2. initial and subsequent academic and social integration; 3. initial and subsequent commitments (i.e., commitment to the goal of GED attainment and commitment to the adult literacy program) and 4. withdrawal decisions.

Each background characteristic was operationalized as follows: years of school completed included highest grade completed and hours of reading before attending the program; individual attributes included sex, race, age, and income; family background included level of mother's and father's education, marital status, number of persons in the home, and number of children under age 13. The initial goal commitment was measured on a five-item Likert scale item measuring the perceived value of the GED and the importance of other goals. The initial institutional commitment was measured on a Likert scale item measuring the extent to which the student believed he/she made the right choice in enrolling in the program. Academic integration was operationally defined as the sum of nine variables: four five-item factorially derived Likert-scale items measuring a student's perceived level of intellectual development and of faculty concern for quality classroom teaching and student development; two dichotomous variables measuring the frequency of initial contacts with faculty of 10 minutes or more to discuss either course related matters or the academic program. Three items determining the student's grade level of reading, hours of reading per week, and amount of home work per week were also included. Social integration was operationally defined as the sum of six variables: four Likert-scale items measuring a student's perceived degree and quality of relationships with peers and informal non-classroom interactions with faculty; and two dichotomous variables measuring the frequency of non-class contacts with faculty of ten minutes or more to socialize informally or to discuss a campus issue or problem. Subsequent social and academic integration, and goal and institutional commitments were collected on the follow-up instrument and were operationally defined in the same manner as in the initial instrument. Withdrawal decisions were obtained on the follow-up instrument.

Data Analysis

Principle components analysis was employed to determine the factor structure of four sets of social and academic integration variables obtained from the two surveys. Standardized factor scores were used to compute new variables. For example, ORGDISS was a variable computed from the responses to the follow-up survey regarding the extent to which the subject engaged in program and course-related discussions with the instructor: [(C46 * .86) + (C47 * .88)]. Thirteen new variables were created

from a total of 30 item responses.

The SPSS (1986) discriminant analysis program with stepwise variable selection was used to identify the most significant discriminating variables in each of three data sets: eleven background variables were entered into one discriminant analysis--four were selected for entry into the analysis, eight variables obtained from the initial survey were entered into a second discriminant analysis--six were selected for entry into the analysis, eight variables from the follow-up survey were entered into a third discriminant analysis--four were entered into the analysis.

Table 1
Summary Statistics: Discriminant Analysis

Independent Variables	Standardized Discriminant Function Coefficients Function 1	Function 2
ORGDISS (discuss prog.) (II)	.444*	.151
LEARNEF (learning effort) (II)	.388*	.023
INSTKNO (inst.'s knowledge) (II)	.341*	-.032
GED Important (II)	-.318*	.016
GED Important (I)	-.301*	.126
Yrs. of Education	.273*	-.200
ASSEINS (inst.'s knowledge (I)	.227*	-.210
Age	-.091	.544*
CLASINA (student friends) (I)	.065	-.460*
Other Goals Important (I)	-.096	-.293*
Made Right Choice (I)	.213	-.292*
TEACADV (teacher's advice) (I)	-.221	.280*
Race	-.160	-.279*
Children under age 13	-.040	.220*
Canonical Correlation	.67	.53
Significance	.022	.223

The fourteen variables identified from the above discriminant analyses were entered into a fourth discriminant analysis using a forced entry procedure. The background variables were entered first, then the initial survey variables and lastly, the subsequent survey variables. This analysis produced a single significant function which discriminated between those persons who completed their goals for attending the program and those who either dropped out or remained in the program (Table 1). A second non-significant function was produced which discriminated between those who remained in the program and those who dropped out. Collectively, both functions correctly classified 75.86 percent of the cases: prior probabilities were set at .5. Therefore, the analysis explained

25.86 percent of the variance in completion, persistence, and withdrawal behavior.

Discussion

With several modifications, Tinto's model appears to have been effective in facilitating the identification of those variables which contribute substantially to predicting completion, dropout, and persistence in adult literacy programs. The variables explained 25.86 percent of the variance compared to similar studies by Garrison (1985) in which 22.1 percent was explained, and a direct test of Tinto's model by Pascarella et al. (1983) which explained 23.9 percent.

Subsequent academic commitment appears to differentiate completers from dropouts and persisters. Completers were more likely to engage in program-related discussions with instructors, and to have a higher degree of academic readiness, i.e., they had higher levels of education, and spent more hours of week reading and doing homework. They had a higher regard for the professional knowledge of instructors, and lower regard for obtaining the GED, i.e., 63 percent had obtained either a GED or a high school diploma.

Background variables, (e.g., age, race, and children under age 13) initial social and academic integration variables, and initial program commitment variables appear to differentiate dropouts from persisters. Persisters were more likely to be older minorities with fewer children under age 13. They were less likely to initially interact socially with instructors or to indicate the GED as a goal, but more likely to engage in academic discussions and receive information from instructors, and to initially indicate they made the right choice in attending the program.

This study suggests that the program failed to mediate the background characteristics of students, i.e., students who were better academically prepared were most likely to complete the program. Those students who enter programs with low commitments to academic success should be identified and provided assistance to deepen their academic commitment, e.g., to do more reading and homework, and to seek more information from instructors.

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Do Returning Adult Men Students Have Psychosocial Concerns?

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The older, returning adult student has received a considerable amount of attention in the research literature for almost two decades now. Studies have, however, primarily focused on the needs of returning adult women. This study examined the psychosocial concerns of both genders of returning adult students to determine if men as well as women had psychosocial concerns. Data were collected by surveying 158 adult men and women students enrolled in an adult degree program at a small privately owned liberal arts college in the midwest. A mailed questionnaire asked for demographic information and information pertinent to psychosocial concerns. Ninety, or 57 percent of the students returned the questionnaire. Findings indicated that both men and women adult students had psychosocial concerns such as self-doubt, guilt, lack of confidence, and fear of failure or of not completing a baccalaureate degree. The findings should enable faculty to interact more effectively in the classroom with both genders of adult learners.

Do Returning Adult Men Students Have Psychosocial Concerns?

According to the 1983 Census Report, thirty-seven percent of all college students are over the age of 25. The number of adult students doubled from 551,000 in 1973 to 1,167,000 in 1983. Women constituted 55 percent of the enrollment; men constituted 45 percent (Hart, Birnbaum, Grob, & Webb, 1988). Despite the fact that over more than half a million adult students on college campuses in 1983 were returning men, few researchers studied them. Yet the literature is replete with studies focusing on the needs of returning adult women students and the reasons why they returned to college.

One can only postulate why the needs of adult men have not been studied. For the most part, prior to the late 1960's and the women's movement, men were considered the "norm" on college campuses. Most colleges had already, therefore, geared their programs, curriculum, and services to meet the needs of men. Because women were a fairly new phenomena on college campuses, especially in the 1970's, researchers frequently studied them to find out their special needs.

A few researchers have studied the characteristics, needs, and problems of all adult students regardless of gender. Situational, institutional, and dispositional barriers of all adult students were mentioned by Cross (1981), Darkenwald and Valentine (1985), and Schmidt (1982). Some of the situational barriers identified were time management problems of balancing job/family and school (Cross, 1981; Schmidt, 1982), not enough funds available for education (Cross, 1981; Darkenwald & Valentine, 1985); and problems with travel to and from campuses (Cross, 1981). Cross (1981) also noted institutional barriers such as complicated registration procedures, problems with library access, and parking. Some dispositional barriers identified were low self-esteem (Schmidt, 1982), low self-confidence (Cross, 1981; Darkenwald & Valentine, 1985), a high degree of stress (Schmidt, 1982), and a feeling of being unaccepted by younger students (Cross, 1981).

This study examined the dispositional barriers, or as this author refers to them, psychosocial concerns, of both men and women returning adult students. A previous study conducted by this researcher (Muench, 1985) revealed that returning adult women students experienced psychosocial concerns such as guilt, self-doubt, lack of self-confidence, and low levels of trust. Erik Erikson's epigenetic theory (1963) which views the development of the individual from birth to death was the conceptual framework for the study. The intent of this study was to elaborate on the previous study to find out if men had psychosocial concerns and if they were similar to women.

Knowledge of the psychosocial concerns of returning adult students is important for several reasons. The most important reason is that the dynamics of the teaching-learning transaction is affected. Students who have psychosocial concerns have difficulty concentrating on the subject matter. They often have psychological barriers to learning. They may even drop out of school if their psychosocial concerns are not addressed.

A second reason is that students are whole people. They have affective needs as well as cognitive needs. Recognizing the psychosocial needs (affective needs) of students acknowledges them as whole people. Faculty who

address the psychosocial needs of adult students have a more holistic view of the adult learner. The teaching/learning environment cannot be anything but enhanced by this holistic view.

Method

Data were collected by surveying 158 returning adult men and women students enrolled in an adult degree program at a small liberal arts college in the midwest. A total of 90, or 57 percent, of the students responded to a four-page questionnaire mailed to them. Questions, besides focusing on demographic information, examined psychosocial concerns such as guilt, lack of confidence, self-doubt, and fears. Analysis included compilation of data by frequency distribution and percentages, the chi-square statistic, and the phi coefficient. Some gender and age comparisons were made.

The Sample

The sample was comprised of 90 returning undergraduate adult students. Fifty-six, or 62 percent, were male and 34, or 38 percent, were female. The average age was 36.6 years. Eighty-six percent were white and the remaining 14 percent were minorities (Black, 11 percent; Hispanics, 1 percent; American Indians, 2 percent). The majority of the sample (93 percent) worked full-time and were enrolled in six credits or two courses per semester. Seventy-three percent were married, 16 percent were single, and 11 percent were separated or divorced. Seventy-six percent of the sample had children. Eighty-nine percent reported they had support from their significant others while 11 percent reported they did not have support. Forty percent of the sample were enrolled in their first semester of classes. Sixty percent had been enrolled for anywhere between two and nine semesters.

Results

Self-doubt, guilt, lack of self-confidence, and fears such as fear of failure and not finishing a baccalaureate degree were identified as psychosocial concerns for both men and women students. More men than women experienced lack of self-confidence. More women than men experienced guilt. A large percentage of both men and women had self-doubt. In addition, an almost equal number of both genders experienced fear such as fear of failure or not completing a degree. Table 1 displays these findings.

Insert Table 1 About Here

Psychosocial concerns were cross-tabulated with demographic variables. The chi-square statistic indicated a statistically significant relationship (χ^2: 1, n = 87: 4.06; $P < .05$) between guilt and age in both men and women. In this study, the younger male and female students between the ages of 23 and 35 experienced more guilt than the older students between the ages of 36 and 56.

The corrected chi-square statistic adjusted for small numbers indicated there was a statistically significant relationship (χ^2: 1, N = 54: 4.25; $P <$

Table 1

Percentage of Adult Men and Women Students with Psychosocial Concerns

		Gender Distribution		
Psychosocial Concerns	N	Percentage of Whole Sample N = 90	Percentage of Men Only N = 56	Percentage of Women Only N = 34
Self-Doubt	88	73%	73%	74%
Guilt	90	49%	46%	53%
Lack of Self-Confidence	90	69%	75%	59%
Fear of Failure or Not Finishing and Other Fears	90	58%	57%	59%

.05) between experiencing fear and age in males students. The results suggest that younger male students experienced more fear than the older male students.

When psychosocial concerns were cross-tabulated with demographic variables for only the women students, the chi-square statistic did not reveal any significant findings. The phi coefficient indicated, however, there was a moderate relationship between several variables. Guilt and age (phi = .34203) were related. In this study the younger female students (n = 13) experienced more guilt than the older female students (n = 19).

The phi coefficient also indicated a relationship between self-confidence and age (phi = .37970) and self-doubt and age (phi = .38799). Younger women students had both less self-confidence and more self-doubt.

Implications for Practice

This study revealed that men as well as women adult students have psychosocial concerns. Educational institutions should plan their programs to readily meet the psychosocial needs of both genders. Results of a recent study (Hu, 1985) found that the success of older students on campuses greatly depended on academic advising, career guidance, and counseling designed to raise the confidence level of returning adult students. Workshops, academic advising, and counseling should, therefore, be designed to include components which address psychosocial concerns such as lack of confidence, guilt, fear of failure, and self-doubt.

In addition, college campuses should be encouraged to create positions whereas one specific person coordinates workshops and programs for adult students as well as advises them. At the University of Hartford, Gladstone (1987) found that the creation of such a position, Coordinator of Student Advisement, was very positively received by both faculty and adult students.

Furthermore, adult educators should design their classroom activities around building the self-confidence of their adult students. Small group work which gives adult students the opportunity to interact with each other will enable adult students to realize they are not alone with their psychosocial concerns. It will also promote networking which encourages students to be supportive of each other in the educational process.

Further research should be conducted to determine if and how college administrators and educators are addressing the psychosocial concerns of both men and women adult students on their college campuses. Higher retention rates could be the result of their efforts to meet the special needs of returning adult students.

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Factors Leading to the Termination of Three Consortia of Higher Education Institutions: A Case Study

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Abstract

An initial inquiry to identify the factors leading to the termination of three higher education consortia, this case study resulted in the identification of nine common termination factors. The factors were as follows: (1) lack of funding policy, (2) lack of institutional commitment, (3) lack of mission clarity, (4) inadequate organizational structures, (5) ineffectiveness, (6) lack of leadership, (7) institutionalization, (8) lack of community support, and (9) lack of member complementarity.

Several recommendations are offered including the requirement that potential consortium members submit a report of anticipated benefits, costs, and contributions. The factors are relevant to collaboration in schools, business, industry and government as well as higher education.

Factors Leading to the Termination of Three Consortia of Higher Education Institutions: A Case Study

The consortium has long been heralded as a way to manage higher education competition and channel it into positive results (Lancaster, 1969). The consortium has also been cited as leading to a more economic, efficient, and effective use of resources (Glazer, 1980). Hohman (1985,p. 75) described interorganizational collaboration in education as a "fact of life" which will become increasingly more common and essential. However, she comments that "until now, collaboration has been mostly a practical art, and relatively little systematic thought has been given to the best ways of achieving its intent."

A review of the literature on consortia of higher education institutions confirms Hohman's criticism. While there is much description, speculation, prescription, and exhortation, there is a noticeable lack of comprehensive, integrative studies or theory. In the most effective attempt at theory development, Beder (1984) posits four principles for successful collaboration. Those principles are: (1) reciprocity in benefit, (2) organizational openness to a wide range of environmental inputs, (3) development of an atmosphere of trust and commitment, and (4) compatible organizational structures.

An initial analysis of the consortium experience in the United States revealed that not only was there a lack of research but that the literature ignored the fact that one of every three consortia in existence or developed from 1973 to 1983 had ceased operations prior to 1984. These terminated consortia offered potential insights into the specific pitfalls to be avoided for successful consortium management.

With that potential in mind, this research project's purpose was to identify the factors that had led to the termination of selected consortia of higher education institutions. The study was conducted in the hope that the findings might help to avoid unnecessary consortium terminations. This could be accomplished through improved development of new consortia and better management of existing consortia.

Method

Review of the two major research paradigms resulted in the researcher's conclusion that the qualitative paradigm was most relevant to this study. This paradigm offered a means to conduct an inobtrusive study which captures people's knowledges and understandings regarding complex realities (Guba, 1978). It is particularly appropriate where there is no pre-existing research base (Borg and Gall, 1983). Within this paradigm, the case study methodology was selected because of its strength in examining a phenomenon in its real-life context (Yin, 1981).

Sample Case Selection

The case studied in this research was the consortia terminated between 1978 and 1983. Utilizing purposeful sampling which emphasizes selection based upon possession of specific characteristics (Patton, 1980), a set of sample selection criteria were developed as follow: selected consortia were in existence at least five years prior to termination, cooperated in academic

programs designed for adults, reflected an assortment of institutional mixes, had financial support other than short-term grants, and had a unified central operation with a single director. Five terminated consortia met all selection criteria. Three of the five were selected for study with the remaining two serving as alternates. The three selected consortia were as follows:

Consortium A: Consortium for Urban Education, (CUE)
Indianapolis, Indiana.

Consortium B: Rochester Regional Planning and Education Center
Rochester, Minnesota.

Consortium C: The University of Mid-America (UMA)
Lincoln, Nebraska

Data Collection and Instrumentation

The techniques for data collection used in this study included those recommended by Merriam, (1984): observation, interview, and document analysis. The type of interview employed was the general interview based upon a generalized field guide (Yin, 1982).

The chief executive office of each institution involved in the selected consortia was contacted by mail in order to begin the process of identifying primary actors in the decisions to terminate. Contact was then made with the identified respondents.

During visits to the locus of each consortium all available respondents were interviewed and documents were reviewed. In 17 days spent in the field, 50 face-to-face interviews were conducted. Ten primary actors in the termination decision who had left the consortium area were contacted and interviewed by telephone. Interviews were tape recorded and transcribed. Notes were maintained during and after each interview, each day of interviewing, and each wave of data collection.

Date Analysis and Reporting

Categories were repeatedly refined as data analysis progressed. Eventually the analysis resulted in nine termination factors. Of particular interest were themes or factors common to two or more of the consortia.

The themes and factors were corroborated with persons interviewed at the case loci. Overall, there was agreement that the researcher had captured the essence of the three consortia.

Once these checks were made, an initial narrative report was presented to a panel of experts for their review. Selected for their national reputations and long-term involvement in interinstitutional collaboration, these experts responded that the nine termination factors were plausible and important.

Analysis of the Data

A separate report was developed for each consortium and each report represents a stand-alone study. Each report was organized around the common termination factors in order to stress the commonalities of the three consortia's experience. This report is on the cumulative cross-case analysis. Quotations from the confidential, tape recorded interviews are used extensively in the report. The reader is advised that all quotations in this article which are not followed by a parenthetical citation were selected from these confidential interviews.

Termination Factors

There were eight major factors, as reported below, which were common to all three studied consortia. In addition, two consortia failed to gain community support.

Funding Policy The most immediate cause of termination at all three consortia was the loss of funding. The consortia were viewed by funding sources as experiments which were to become self-sustaining, although this fact was not communicated to the consortium prior to termination. It was rationalized that the consortium's value would be so obvious that member institutions would assume consortium funding responsibilities or that other funding would be forthcoming. None of the consortia had even a remote potential for full support from member institutions and there were few, if any, other funding sources for the consortia to pursue.

The funding agencies enforced a variety of stipulations which led to consortium goal displacement. The consortium was forced to pursue short-term goals to justify funding rather than pursue goals more relevant to member or constituent needs. Potential funding more often defined consortium goals rather than well-defined goals having led to improved funding access.

Institutional Commitment and Support Membership appeared to be measured in terms of the amount of advantage gained with little or no investment. The member institutions were willing to utilize the consortia for access to information and other resources as outlined by Beder (1984) but viewed programs or materials produced by the consortia with distrust, even disdain.

One part of this problem was the "indeterminant level of involvement" on the part of institution presidents. The consortia relied upon presidential commitment assuming that faculty commitment would follow. Instead, there was confusion, frustration, and even alienation on the part of faculty. There was general agreement at all three consortia that the failure to involve faculty more extensively was a serious shortcoming.

Mission Clarity and Articulation None of the studied consortia developed concise statements of mission nor did they continuously reassess and adapt the goals which were established. When goals were set, they were not articulated. The failure to communicate a sense of mission throughout the consortium resulted in a failure to achieve consensus on appropriate, unified action. Instead, missions were allowed to "evolve" under the assumption that participatory cooperation would result in the identification of appropriate activities. Repeatedly, faculty and administrators complained about a lack of direction and a sense that they were brought together for no obvious reason.

Organizational Structure The lack of a sense of mission contributed to poor conceptualizations of organizational structures appropriate for attainment of consortium objectives. Two consortia had minimal board and committee structures which resulted in role confusion and no mechanisms for unity of effort. These structures were incompatible with the highly defined institutional bureaucratic structures in which faculty and administrators had to function.

UMA, on the other hand, developed a "behemoth" structure which was alleged to be "top-heavy". Seen as duplicative, the structure was also dysfunctional because it hindered rather than enhanced communication or efficiency.

Effectiveness Each consortium suffered from member institution perceptions of ineffectiveness. Some of the consortia were also perceived that way by funding agencies or communities. While mission was not clearly defined, there was a general sense of what each consortium was to do and the overall assessments were that the consortia had failed.

Leadership Described as "weak" or "charismatically" driven, the management of the three consortia was ineffective, particularly at the board level. The reliance upon institution presidents as board members, while perhaps politically necessary, was debilitating because of their lack of time or interest in providing leadership. It appeared that board members were more interested in monitoring than leading, in restricting than refining. These presidents were selected by their institutions for assumed abilities to manage traditional education organizations but those abilities may not be the same ones required for leadership of collaborative, innovative ventures.

Institutionalization A fear the consortium would be a "super-board" reflected the concern about loss of autonomy. There were also concerns about domain as the institutions perceived competition, duplication, even usurpation. Finally, there were concerns about costs such as a loss of students. In the end, these fears "denied the consortium a life of its own." The institutions were unwilling to define a domain in which to allow the consortia to operate. The issue was often cast in the form of a question about whether the consortium was a project or an entity that was emerging as an institution. This essential question was often addressed but never answered.

Member Complementarity There was dissonance over perceived status, resource wealth, and levels of commitment to the consortia. Some institutions perceived others as gaining more than they, which weakened the consortia.

There was also dissonance over the dissimilarity of the member institutions. Different philosophies, organizational structures, and funding arrangements complicated cooperation.

Conclusions and Discussion

Beder's (1984) call for reciprocity was not attained nor is this an easy principal to accomplish in a multiple institutional arrangement. The tentative commitments made to the consortia by their member institutions were understandable but debilitating. Rather than enhancing an atmosphere of trust and commitment, the limited initial commitment detracted from an atmosphere conducive to collaboration. Apparently emphasizing the maximization of resource allocation (Benson, 1975), the institutions jealously guarded not only their autonomy but also their domain. Being neither self-controlled nor having substantial commitment from members, the consortia were in very precarious and ultimately fatal predicaments.

The literature on consortia offered little forewarning of the problems they would encounter with mission confusion, lack of organizational structure, and ineffective or nonexistent leadership. There was an apparent desire to enter into open-ended agreements which led to ambiguity and contributed to inaction. Lancaster (1969) had warned of the difficulty of interrelating a corporate management model (institutions) with a political management model (consortia). The warning went unheeded.

The consortia failed to develop compatible structures and pursued, rather than limited, ambiguity. In an overreliance upon flexibility, the necessary structural and management considerations which could have enhanced compatibility were overlooked. Member institutions were approached as centralized operations. The consortia overemphasized presidential support and lost the faculty and ultimately the institution.

Recommendations

1. Develop a clearly defined mission with articulated goals and

communicate this mission and goals throughout the consortium and its member institutions.

2. Utilize the agreed-upon mission and goals to define appropriate and necessary activities for the consortium.

3. Utilize the mission to develop an organizational structure which will facilitate both goal accomplishment and compatibility with member institutions.

4. Consider board member selection, role definition, and decision-making protocol in terms of the mission and structure of the organization.

5. Require that each potential member prepare a self-study as a prerequisite for membership. The study should include the anticipated benefits of membership, the anticipated contributions, and the anticipated costs.

6. Require membership dues to assure greater ownership.

7. Pursue public policy to provide funding for voluntary cooperation.

These recommendations are offered in the belief that, with appropriate commitment, support, conceptualization, and management, the consortium can provide a potential means to cooperatively achieve selected and clearly defined goals. However, this complex entity must be recognized as being both a collaborative process and an organizational framework requiring effective management. Consortium achievement of mutually desired member goals, is attainable only through continued efforts to better understand, develop, and manage these collaborative efforts.

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Expert Systems as a Vehicle for the Transfer of Research-to-Practice

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Abstract:

Expert systems and other artificial intelligence applications are beginning to play an important role in the transfer of research-to-practice in many post-secondary educational institutions, foundations, and governmental units. Some futurists have projected that expert systems will soon serve as the "next knowledge medium," and replace books and other less active media as vehicles for the transfer of research findings into practitioner's hands. Soon, these futurists claim, "publishing" expert systems (instead of publishing books) will be the accepted way of disseminating important information.

The paper addresses the following issues: (1) What can be gained by using expert systems as information media? The "explanation" capabilities of expert systems will be described in this section, as well as the other "user-friendly" features they provide. (2) Why are there so many strong opponents to the widespread use of expert systems? The criticisms that have been levied against expert systems as a research-to-practice transfer medium will be addressed. (3) Can apparatus for the review of expert systems be developed? The issue of whether expert systems (since they utilize a new, experimental information vehicle) should be put under tougher review standards than are textbooks and journal articles will be discussed.

Before expert systems can become the "next knowledge medium," a number of important issues must be addressed. The discussion of these issues should serve to enlighten our thinking about all of the different vehicles for information transfer that we utilize.

Expert Systems as a Vehicle for the Transfer of Research-to-Practice

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Expert system technology is one of the most promising areas of research in artificial intelligence. In the past five years, this technology has become much more than a laboratory curiosity. Literally hundreds of applications of expert system technology have been developed and successfully utilized as media for the transfer of research-to-practice in many post-secondary educational institutions, foundations, and governmental units. Some recent examples of such expert system initiatives can be found in the fields of social work (assisting in child welfare decision-making, Schuerman and Vogel, 1986), educational administration (providing decision support for university admissions officers, Edwards and Bader, 1988), and in vocational-technical education (assisting in instruction in certain technical skills, Ruyle, 1986 and Roth, 1986).

What are expert systems? One of the early developers of this technology, Feigenbaum (1982, page 1), defines "expert system" in the following way:

> An "expert system" is an intelligent computer program that uses knowledge and inference procedures to solve problems that are difficult enough to require significant human expertise for their solution. The knowledge necessary to perform at such a level, plus the inference procedures used, can be thought of as a model of the expertise of the best practitioners of the field.

Rather than attempting to provide models of "nature" itself, expert system developers seek to provide models of the reasoning processes that experts supposedly use when solving problems in those aspects of the world that they are considered "experts" about.

What can be gained by using expert systems as information media? Expert systems provide such advantages as the following:
(1) Expert systems can deliver <u>interactive advice</u> for learners and decision-makers, advice which is tailored to a specific problem situation.
(2) The <u>explanation capability</u> that many expert systems have allows the user of the expert system to determine the precise chain of reasoning that the system utilized to reach a particular conclusion, or the reason the system asked for a certain piece of information from the user. Since many expert system applications deal with sensitive issues where critical judgment is required, such system-query capability is nearly a necessity in order to gain the user's trust.
(3) Many expert systems have other special, <u>user-friendly</u> capabilities, such as different levels of access to the system for novices than for experts.
(4) Expert system "<u>shells</u>" for personal computers are available, some of which are designed especially for individuals who have only limited computer know-how. Shells are "empty" expert systems, systems without specific domain knowledge; the user supplies the specific domain knowledge of his or her application. Professionals who want to capture the knowledge of their domains of expertise can be readily trained to take active roles in developing,

updating, and otherwise maintaining the systems built using these shells. The benefits of such development and/or maintenance of expert systems by the experts themselves are considerable. An example of these benefits is related in the following quotation, which describes the experience of medical school students who built expert systems as a part of their training:

> It is one thing to dig into the literature with hope that it will be useful in a remote future (if your memory is good...); it is much more rewarding to formalize the new information, find where it fits in regard to previous knowledge, transfer it to the computer, and look at it "in action"...It presents students with a concrete representation of how they, as physicians, will look (or think)...
>
> Mulsant and Servan-Schreiber, 1984, page 88

Using Expert Systems as a Research-To-Practice Transfer Vehicle

Some futurists have projected that expert systems will soon serve as the "next knowledge medium" (Stefik, 1986) and that "publishing" expert systems (instead of publishing books) will be the accepted way of providing a transfer of results from research to practice. Although the complete replacement of books and other written media appears unlikely (at least in the near-term future), expert systems have already found a place alongside of the more established information vehicles in many organization.

Should educators use expert systems as a medium for the transfer of research to practice? The exploration of this new tool by educators is imperative for the following reasons: (1) Expert systems allow their designers a whole range of knowledge delivery capabilities (described above) that the writers of books and articles do not have access to. These capabilities have special value for education (which is obviously knowledge-intensive). (2) As the number of individuals who have some familiarity with the technology increases, the exchange of expertise via expert systems will become a common occurrence. The development of expert systems in some sectors of business and industry has already experienced considerable expansion (see Desmond, 1988 for recent examples). Educators can tighten the couplings between the business and education communities by utilizing expert system technology. (3) Expert system technology is new, and still very malleable. Educators should take every opportunity to influence the directions this technology will take, and to use their special expertise to help lead in the development of its infrastructure.

Although there have been a number of isolated, pilot expert system projects, organizational experience with the widespread utilization of expert systems as a vehicle for information exchange has been limited. Most certainly, the best example of the use of expert systems as an abundant organizational resource can be found at Du Pont (Brody, 1988 and McNurlin, 1987), in the AI applications group under the direction of Edward Mahler. Mahler's AI taskforce has trained more than a thousand Du Pont employees in the use of expert system shells, and Mahler estimates the number of expert systems in use at Du Pont currently to be more than two hundred. The expert systems developed at Du Pont are used as training tools (to replace cumbersome and often boring training manuals), as documentation media for projects (to replace or supplement other forms of project documentation), and simply as tools to stimulate and enhance the problem solving capabilities of Du Pont

technicians, scientists, and managers. Mahler contends that such smaller scale expert system projects can work well for organizations if (1) users are given adequate training and follow-up assistance, (2) a support network for users is established so that they can learn from each other, (3) users are encouraged to start with simple but significant projects that fit in well with their other activities, and (4) users are given "ownership" of these projects (i.e., responsibility to see them through to their useful completion and integration with regular organizational procedures).

Some Criticisms of Expert Systems

Although the value of expert systems as information media has been demonstrated by a growing number of pilot projects, a high level of concern is being generated about several aspects of their application. Some of the heated debate about expert systems has been focused on the issue of whether the users of these systems will become overly reliant or dependent upon them, and not develop their own common-sense capabilities (Oravec, 1988). Some of these critics have gone so far as to project that the very notion of true human "expertise" will become an anachronism if the use of expert systems increases dramatically, because so many of us will be using these computer systems as models of "expertise" rather than the human variety (Dreyfus and Dreyfus, 1986). Other points of opposition to these systems include concerns about the impact that these systems could have on the job security and working conditions of professional and technical people. For example, Perrolle (1987) addresses the growing concern that the widespread utilization of expert systems could lead to the social and economic "devaluation" of mental labor.

The criticisms that have been levied against expert systems as an information transfer medium are important ones which should be addressed before expert systems experience widespread utilization. Rather than being dismissed as "technophobia," these warnings about this technology have largely been (and should continue to be) taken seriously.

Establishing Apparatus for the Review of Expert Systems

Can an apparatus for the review of expert systems be developed? The issue of whether expert systems, which utilize new and experimental techniques, should be put under qualititatively different (and perhaps tougher) review standards than are textbooks and journal articles is an important one. Authorities in the fields of law and insurance have a special interest in this area, since the injuries caused by failures in the review process will eventually be addressed by their professions (Baram, 1987).

The procedures by which academic textbooks and journal articles are reviewed include (1) refereed peer review, and (2) replication (if scientific experimentation is involved). The "marketplace of ideas," in effect, serves as a review process as well: if books and articles are not acceptable to their intended audiences, they will not be purchased and distributed in sufficient numbers, and will die a death (of sorts) from neglect.

Why are the "conventional" forms of book and article review not sufficient for expert systems? The individualized, situational advice and information that expert systems provide apparently does not lend itself to the kinds of review that books and articles (which provide more generalized

information) are given. Alternative systems of review for expert systems and other, similar computerized decision support systems are being developed. One possible procedure would be to design standardized sets of hypothetical "cases," cases which are designed to test the limits of performance of the expert systems in question. The behavior of the various expert systems in a particular problem area may be compared against each other using these cases as benchmarks. Another standard against which to evaluate the quality of expert systems is that of the human experts' own performances on similar problems. A number of such comparisons have already been made (see Stewart, 1988, for a comparison in the field of meterology). The question of just how well an expert system must rate next to a human expert's performance in order to be used for a certain application will have to be determined carefully, on the basis of a thorough examination of the kind of application at hand, as well as how the expert system is to be used in practice.

The development of expert systems as a vehicle for knowledge transfer has been compared to Gutenberg's invention of the printing press. The ready availability of easy-to-use expert systems, systems that can tailor themselves to the interests and abilities of their users, indeed provides a great promise for the future. The problems that we as educators will face in exploiting this new technology are many, but the rewards may be spectacular.

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A Framework for Evaluating Child Abuse Prevention Programs

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Abstract

The focus of the paper is the political context of evaluating child abuse prevention programs. The foundation of this paper rests on the findings and experiences resulting from the study of three types of child abuse prevention programs: 1) parent/family education, 2) parent aide programs (mentors), and 3) preschool through high school based sexual abuse prevention curricula for children and teachers. Seventeen programs were evaluated using data from over six hundred participants. Three general barriers to conducting the evaluation are identified: 1) mistrust of evaluation, 2) the volatile nature of sexual abuse prevention programs in public schools, and 3) misconceptions about the purpose of the evaluation. The paper identifies four systems for perceiving the overall context of the evaluation process--from the initial stages to dissemination of the findings. The systems are client, target, action and change agent. Strategic suggestions for overcoming barriers to evaluations are framed in the context of the four systems. Although grounded in child abuse prevention evaluations, this paper is intended to be useful to a wide range of evaluation studies of controversial programs.

A Framework for Evaluating Child Abuse Prevention Programs

Background of the Political Context for Evaluation

The incidence of child abuse (physical neglect, emotional abuse, physical abuse and sexual abuse) has increased in the past decade (American Humane Association, 1985). As a social problem, child abuse requires interventions from a wide range of professionals--not the least of which is the adult educator. Their roles in teaching parenting skills, teaching prevention curricula, developing curricula for parenting and stress management classes and evaluation can draw them into political controversy.

The focus of the paper is the political context of evaluating child abuse prevention programs. The foundation of this paper rests on the evaluation findings and experiences resulting from the study of three types of child abuse prevention programs: 1) parent/family education, 2) parent aide programs (mentors), and 3) preschool through high school based sexual abuse prevention curricula for children and teachers (Pamperin and Bailey, 1988). The paper identifies four systems for perceiving the overall context of the evaluation process--from the initial stages to dissemination of the findings. Issues raised include the political barriers to conducting evaluation and procedures for overcoming these barriers. The paper is intended to be useful independent of the evaluation designs.

The effectiveness of child abuse programs elicits considerable controversy from both supporters and opponets of the programs. The nature of these programs often offends parts of the community. Negative attitudes range from denial of the problem to a "just lock'em up" approach. Both perpetrators and victims have social stigmas which raise anxieties in others about what is "normal" and spark fears about the direction society may be taking (Goffman, 1963). For many people, just the mention of the child neglect, physical abuse or sexual abuse raises strongly held beliefs about what should or should not be discussed.

Child abuse is one of the most emotionally charged family problems of our day. Once the private secret of the family it, has become the topic of our daily news and talk shows. State laws have been passed to protect children, thus extending important civil rights to a politically relatively powerless group (Preston, 1984). Awareness of child abuse has been raised, leading to the expenditure of millions of dollars for treatment and prevention. One consequence the public visibility and higher funding levels has been the increased utilization of evaluations studies to determine program effectiveness (Daro, 1988). The effectiveness of the programs is regularly open to debate.

Controversy is not new to politically charged social issues. The history of social welfare evaluation studies is replete with controversy; the Head Start Programs study has become a classic example. Increase in public funding for social welfare programs results in at least two groups addressing the issue of public policy--advocates for more funding, and vocal critics. In order to clarify the debate, programs evaluators are frequently used to collect and analyze data. Consequently evaluators have at least two political audiences for their findings.

Social Alienation and Child Abuse

Social alienation of child abuse clients refers to their limited access to the opportunities to achieve satisfaction in life tasks. Many experience barriers to adequate, social and educational services, personal integrity, and socially integrated neighborhoods. Both perpetrators and victims of abuse feel a deep sense of estrangement from families, communities and society in general, and the public stigma increases their isolation. They often retreat into lives of social isolation by reducing their contact with friends and treatment agencies. Many live with scarring secrets of abuse experienced as children, and compulsively act out the abuse on to new victims. In an attempt

to avoid the authorities, some adopt to a nomadic life style. Others who perceive they have been wronged by the system designed to protect children affiliate with the self-help group Victims Of Child Abuse Laws (VOCAL) seeking a renewed sense of power.

Evaluating child abuse prevention programs can lead to innovative approaches to reducing alienation within this population.

Programs to Prevent Child Abuse

In 1974 Federal government support for the abused and neglected child was solidified with the passage of the Child Abuse Prevention and Treatment Act P.L. 93-247, and funding levels steadily increase over the years. The increase was based upon what appeared to be an ever expanding growth in the number of abused children. These figures have received critical analysis which suggest they have distorted the actual numbers of abused and neglected children (Besharov, 1988). During the first decade of this act the emphasis was on case finding and to a lesser extent the rehabilitation of families. But, due to the large growth in suspected cases new prevention models were introduced to stop this trend. One promise of the new prevention movement is to stop the cycle of being abused--to becoming an abuser. Thus, the axiom, "an ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure" was translated into a social program.

Three models of prevention predominate: 1)sexual abuse prevention curricula for elementary and secondary school children; 2) parent/family education; and 3) parent aides. Sexual abuse prevention curricula are the newest approach, with little previous experience on which to build; while parent education and parent aides have their roots in adult education and social work beginning in the nineteenth century.

Barriers to Evaluation

Child abuse prevention programs present unique challenges to evaluators. Access to the client groups can be limited for a variety of reasons. Three of these barriers are: 1) client and agency mistrust of the evaluation, 2) the volatile nature of sexual abuse and prevention programs in public school settings, and 3) misconceptions about the purpose of the evaluation. A program director might attempt to circumvent the evaluation arguing that the client is too vulnerable, fearing the trust the program developed with the client could be jeopardized. In the case of school based sexual abuse prevention a curriculum may be in place, but a local community may be very sensitive to explicit questions being asked of children about what was learned. Educational leaders may limit access to children entirely or require written parental permission, thus potentially severely limiting the high risk child from being included in the study. Complications may occur when the program director assumes (perhaps incorrectly) that evaluations will be used to restrict funding because they have not always accomplished the goals stated in the proposal document. It is not uncommon for proposal statements to promise more than can be delivered, and prevention programs are no exception to this. Because of the rhetoric of "alleged cooperation" the three barriers may not surface initially or at the same time. However, in time, one or all may appear as the evaluation proceeds.

Overcoming Evaluation Barriers

Four systems which are effective in overcoming the previously mentioned barriers may be drawn from the social work literature on planned change. Pincus and Minahan (1973) defined these four systems as the client, target, action and change agent systems. The four systems offer a conceptual framework for determining the type of relationship the evaluator is engaging in when negotiating the contract and implementing the evaluation plan. By defining the nature of the interactional relationships, the evaluators increase their likelihood of recognizing the barriers,

and plan strategies to reduce these barriers. This results in increased collaboration with program directors and their clients.

Client System. The client system is the contracting agency represented by the administrator. The client system contracts in writing for the evaluation, agrees to a specified plan, and an appropriate fee. Conditions of the evaluation can be rigidly defined or flexible. The evaluator enters into a legal contractual relationship. The client system engages the evaluator to study aspects of the programs they fund or are responsible for adminstering. For the purposes of this paper, the client system will be assumed to be an administrative agency which provides funds and support services for service vendors. Because they rarely rely totally on the client system agency for their funding, service vendors have a high degree of autonomy; this autonomy increases the difficulty of evaluation. The diversity of vendor programs and their distance from the client system does not afford the client system the bureaucratic control found in agencies which both administer and provide service. Administrative agencies with multiple contract service vendors have a need to evaluate programs, but they also approach this with some degree of reluctancy.

Strategies

1. Open communication between the contracting agency director is a must. The evaluator needs to plan for complications arising from the study and be able to discuss them openly with the director. Evaluations are anxiety producing for any individual or organization. As the evaluator, you may know more about the actual programs than the director. Regular communication will keep the director informed and may provide helpful feedback on how the evaluation is proceeding.

An attitude of co-inquiry should be established, by establishing the assumption that both parties are learning from the study. Evaluation is similar to other complex group learning exeriences in which the involvement of all parties increases the quality of the learning. Soliciting the agency director's advice and counsel on instrument design and how to approach specific vendor directors with help build sound working relations. As findings from the study develop, they can be shared verbally with directors. They are eager to learn "how each program is doing". This will help to give them an understanding of the findings prior to the final report.

The evaluator should retain all authority regarding significant negative or controversal findings. However, overall communication is facilitated by a collaborative relationship built on common interest and needs.

2. Evaluation questions regarding human sexuality require that they be poised with tack and sensitivity to the audience. Early in the study design the specific questions need to be reviewed by the client system. A broad spectrum of informed reviewers should provide feedback on the questionnaire. This is especially true for school age children. The questions should be worded so that as much information as possible is collected while still having local school districts willing to administer it. Remember that what is appropriate in one community may be explicit in another. Therefore, having several sites from which to survey is advantageous, because if one declines, another may be.

3. Most program evaluations for new high risk populations are in need of formative evaluation rather than summative. Summative evaluation address the question: Should the program continue? These types of programs are too new to explicitly determine the worth of a program. Formative evaluations are better suited to this situation because they are intended to provide recommendations on how to improve the delivery of the program.

The client system needs to be made aware of the type of evaluation being conducted. They need to communicate this to the service vendors. This will also help to explain why the evaluation is being implemented, both in the eyes of the client system and the vendor system.

Target System. The target system refers to who is going to be changed as a result of the study. This may include both service vendors and the client systems. Vendors are likely to be changed in terms of the specific methods of program delivery and content. Client systems may change their priorities for funding or increase the specificity of objectives in funded programs.

Because the quality of the information gained from the study depends upon the cooperation of the service vendors, they also need to share power with the evaluator (Hasenfeld, 1987). Obtaining the support of vendors can be difficult, but without their cooperation the study will fail.

Strategies

1. For agencies undergoing an evaluation the important question is: What is the criteria on which my program will be evaluated? This question can be answered a number of ways. First, the client system should inform the contract vendors, in writing, that an evaluation is going to be done. Preliminary questions about the evaluation should be answered by the client system.

After the these questions have been answered the evaluator should contact the vendor. This should be done by holding site visits prior to the final instrument design. These site visits provide an opportunity be better understand the type of clientele being served and goals of the program. These visits give the opportunity for vendor and client input into the evaluation . Suggestions should be incorporated when ever possible. Problems experienced in delivering the program should be accepted with an open mind. Everyone has had the experience of having a good idea modified by practical experience.

2. Sexual issues should be handled with care. In schools knowledgeable staff should be contacted, such as school counselors and social workers who are typically very involved with sexual abuse prevention curricula. These experts will help you negotiate the school system. A word of approval from one of these "insiders" can determine the success or failure of an evaluation.

Confidentiality of teacher and student comments is standard. Methods of protecting confidentiality should be put into a written policy statement. Sample questions should be included in the letter to parents requesting permission for their child to be included in the study.

A pilot test can be very useful since children are invaluable critics of question format. Also, indicating a pilot test of the questionnaire was conducted can demonstrate the seriousness of the effort and increase the validity and reliability.

Action System. The action system refers to the team of individuals who help implement the evaluation plan. A partial listing of the action system members includes: contractor, vendors, clients, typists, computer programers, duplication staff, and other evaluators. At times consultants may be brought in to advise. This action system is flexible and highly adaptive to the needs of the study. Members can remain on the team through the duration of the study or on an *ad hoc* basis. The approach to working with this team is to implement the strategies already mentioned.

Success can be defined from any number of standardized measures (*i.e.* health or personal adjustment). However, we should not overlook what the individual program participant defines as success. For example, in the case of the parent aide program, we found the best measure of success was having a parent aide who was defined as a "friend".

Clients need to have a good understanding of the role they play in the evaluation. High risk groups are frequently suspicious about probes into their lives. Interviews with a panel or an individual can increase their understanding and cooperation, and as a consequence better information can be obtained. Field interviews are costly, but with little previous knowledge about high risk prevention programs from which to draw the cost is worthwhile. These interviews can provide a better understanding of the program impacts that are not adequately revealed in standardized surveys.

The coordination of the action team requires advanced interpersonal and administrative skills.

Change Agent System. The change agent system is the evaluators and institution they represent. The status of the evaluator and prestige of the institution influences the perceptions formed by the other three systems. The evaluators' institution influences the behavior of the evaluators. For example a university based evaluator must adhere to codes of ethics (*i. e.* protection of human subjects, academic freedom, and nonpartisan evaluations).

The institution can become anxious about evaluations involving high risk populations. One primary concern is their legal exposure to lawsuits. Because of previous legal problems involving research, each university has some type of protection of human subjects committee. Evaluators in the pressure to get their study underway may see this as yet, one more obstacle in their way. However, these committees can help protect the evaluator. The committee's review of their evaluation methods can provide an important objective sounding board and point out potential problem areas. Although the evaluator is the principal investigator, the university is potentially liable.

All universities have seasoned evaluators among their faculty. Apprentice evaluators would benefit from their advice. A network of colleagues is perhaps the greatest resource the novice evaluator needs to develop. Evaluation veterans can help formulate and plan carefully designed studies; a skill acquired through direct practice.

Summary

The recent evaluation of 17 child abuse prevention programs provided an experience base for developing this paper. The social context of child abuse programs, three barriers to evaluating them and strategies for overcoming the barriers were defined. This paper presented a conceptual model of four systems (client, target, action and change agent) which an evaluator can use to view the evaluation process. Establishing an attitude of co-learners between the evaluator and other systems is useful for building trust and cooperation. The evaluation of child abuse programs requires a collaborative working relationship to determine what will increase the safety ofchildren and strengthen parent skills.

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RESEARCH, REWARD, AND PROFESSIONAL PRACTICE

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This paper focuses on the issue of rewards as a crucial dimension of the ongoing problem of linking research and practice. The analysis proceeds from a cultural context of modern institutional life. Drawing upon MacIntyre's After Virtue, a critical distinction is made between professional practice that emphasizes internal rewards that are good for the whole community and institutions which emphasize external rewards such as material goods, status and power.

Taking MacIntyre's position that a genuine profession needs continuous debate about the ends for which technical skills serve, the paper probes the dilemmas which the field of adult education faces in confronting the problem of research/practice linkage. Explored is the effect of the growing pattern of specialization, technical concern, and bureaucracy. Particular attention is given to the dilemmas involved in moving away from the dominant statistical paradigms in education to qualitative methodologies that synthesize values and facts.

The paper points to a paradox of how implicit agreement between researchers and practitioners may block the alternative paradigms that inherently involve potential for greater linkage between theory and practice. And it concludes with a recommendation for adult education in facing the inevitable tension beetween internal and external rewards.

RESEARCH, REWARD, AND PROFESSIONAL PRACTICE

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This paper focuses on the issue of rewards as a crucial dimension of the ongoing problem of linking research and practice. Merriam (1986) points to the difference in the reward systems between university faculty and adult educators in the field as a primary cause for the problem. Professors gain merit salary, promotion in rank, and national recognition through their published research, while any direct work with practitioners and their priorities is considered much less prestigious. As Payne (1984) explains, this status distinction not only divorces the framing and pursuit of questions by researchers from the ways that practitioners confront realities, it also encourages research questions which are more suited to the professional prestige system than to helping those who are being studied.

Although important on its own to theory/practice problem, the gap in rewards between researchers and practitioners is only a part of a much deeper cultural context: modern institutional life. Less visible because it so permeates contemporary American society is a critical confusion between professional practice that emphasizes internal rewards and institutions that emphasize external rewards.

In After Virtue, philosopher Alsadair MacIntyre (1981) defines an external good as an individual's property and possession; it is an object of competition. In contrast, an internal good is a good for the whole community who participate in the professional practice, and in turn for those whom that profession serves. MacIntyre contends that professional practice must not be confused with its setting; institutions are inherently concerned with material goods, status, and power. Professional practice, in contrast, is the arena in which virtues are demonstrated, such as justice, courage and truthfulness--without which the corrupting forces of institutions cannot be resisted.

If set within the cultural context described by MacIntyre, research issues in adult education will need to be probed at their deeper roots by acknowledging institutional rewards as different in kind from the internal goods of professional practice--whether for educators in the field or for researchers at universities. But acknowledgment is only a beginning. As Bellah et al. (1985) describe bureaucratic individualism in the United States, what characterizes institutional life are self-interest career strategies rather than vocation as a calling, emphasis on technical skills rather than ethical virtues, and priorities of negotiation and contract rather than client concern and service.

And when it comes to post-secondary education, Bloom (1987) bemoans the separation of specialized social science from

philosophy, facts from values, procedure from purpose. In the face of these dangers according to MacIntyre, professional practice in education, while requiring the exercise of technical skills, needs to conceive and enhance the ends for which those skills serve--whether through teaching, research, or service. Also, a genuine profession needs continuous argument as to what it is and ought to be--and this means a continuity of conflict. For MacIntyre, such a tradition will need to depend upon those professional lives whose existence is on the margin of the mainstream society.

In accepting the above description and prescription, professors of adult education face a mountain of dilemmas in confronting the problem of research/practice linkage. One example: Taking an interdisciplinary approach to knowledge--integrating philosophy, social sciences and professional application rather than isolating a body of specialized knowledge--goes upstream against decision-making boundaries at most universities, and against the patterns in which most professional organizations are organized at a national level.

The field of adult education in the United States is still dynamic enough in its present stage of development to enhance interdisciplinary interaction. But growth, given the pattern of other professional fields as well as the pattern of American culture, will likely exacerbate turf boundaries as expertise is narrowed. And given the ways in which research grant funding is usually decided and distributed in universities as well as in external agencies, growth of the field's research base may mean research questions that become increasingly narrow.

As the focus of concern is more upon technical means and less upon the ends and ethics of adult education, the more likely it is that researchers in adult education will find themselves as part of institutional networks that are concerned with management of resources and behavior rather than part of an intellectual community that promotes scholarly inquiry. What is developing in American education, according to Spring (1988), is a professional-bureaucratic elite that links professional research organizations to government and foundation bureaucracies which provide funding. This elite, whom he calls "knowledge brokers," significantly influences who receives support and the type of research promoted and published.

Other dilemmas may arise when scholars work toward a synthesis of facts and values in educational research--which means a move away from the dominant statistical paradigms and toward qualitative methodologies. As Rockhill (1982) points out, focus on subjective meanings and situational contexts can lead to more full analyses of how adult learning actually occurs in the realities of classroom, work, home, and community. And as Lather (1986) argues, collaborative research approaches are needed that not only involve those being studied into the construction and validation of knowledge, but that also help the participants to understand and change their situations. However, a move against

the premises permeating most university research is risky; and alternative paradigms can involve extraordinary time and energy, whether immersing oneself in field ethnography or developing the slow but vital bases of trust with participants (Whyte, 1984).

However, if researchers ask questions that are rooted in individual, contextual, and political realities, they enter areas filled with ambiguity, even contradiction. As Popkewitz (1984) and Jennings (1985) explain, actual human experience contains inherent complexities and contradictions that cannot be resolved through the logical operations of the typical paradigm of empirical research. And as Clark (1988) demonstrates through the research on teacher thinking:

> ...teaching as experienced is complex, uncertain, and peppered with dilemmas... research on teacher thinking does not promise to discover a generically effective method or set of techniques for dealing with uncertainty, complexity, or dilemmas...(and) by their very natures these qualities defy the quest for a technical fix. (pp 9-10).

But the quest for a technical fix can get strong support from practitioners as well as researchers--when anxious with ambiguity, contradiction, and dilemma in a society where individual and institutional progress is usually measured by a quantifiable demand of observable certainty.

There is not only dilemma for those who work toward linkage between theory and practice; there is paradox. On the one hand, research paradigms that do synthesize facts and values and do emphasize contextual realities, have rich potential for linkage between researchers and practitioners. On the other hand, implicit agreement between researchers and practitioners about mainstream assumptions may work against the very alternative research paradigms that inherently involve the potential for greater linkage between theory and practice.

The current status of andragogy in the United States is a case in point. The dominant research paradigm is one that aims to measure statistically individual attitudinal dimensions and educational orientations of adult educators and adult learners, based on Knowles' definitions of andragogy (Davenport and Davenport, 1985). At the same time, the dominant instructional philosophy for American practitioners is a behavioristic-humanistic merger as exemplified by Knowles (Podeschi, 1986). Whether the attention to andragogy in the United States is by researchers or by instructors, there is usually little attention given to the higher-level philosophical questions: Are the research and instructional methods appropriate for the overall purposes of education? Are these overall purposes good, and why?

Although the dominant epistemological assumptions in American adult education may find implicit coherence between

researchers and practitioners, paradoxically, this same coherence can block alternative research paradigms that try to establish a kind of relationship between the researcher and the researched that more fully integrates theory and practice.

Even attempts by educational researchers, who want an end to the debate about methodology and who work for a synthesis between quantitative and qualitative methodologies, may be dominated by mainstream assumptions. As Smith and Heshusius (1986) warn, the idea that research decisions can be made on the basis of what works does not end the debate; what works depends upon the kind of work one wants research to accomplish.

Although adult education takes place within mainstream patterns of values and epistemology, this does not mean that there are no differences among practitioners in educational institutions. There can be philosophical conflict among practitioners just as there is among researchers. Since philosophical differences do not divide between theory and practice, there may be as much, if not more, potential conflict among practitioners as potential conflict among professors. What cultural critics like MacIntyre are saying to all of us is that this potential for a crucial continuity of conflict in the profession may be smothered by the individualistic drive for external rewards dangled by institutions.

Tied in with all of this is another kind of dilemma that faces educators who take a professional position like MacIntyre's: How does one stand up to institutional patterns that are driven by external rewards without becoming professionally vulnerable--either by not achieving the necessary base of status and power or, if successful, by becoming seduced and trapped by the process and position of achieving that base? Since this quest is routed on a road full of professional tensions, this paper ends with a recommendation: Adult education needs research that explores the tensions between external and internal rewards in actual institutions, and that explores how individuals actually do or do not mediate these tensions--including university researchers themselves.

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Illinois Literacy Hotline Evaluation

Abstract

Between January and June, 1987, an evaluation of the Illinois Literacy Hotline was conducted to determine the effectiveness of the service being provided to literacy providers and individuals who either wanted to volunteer to teach someone how to read or wanted to learn how to read. The results of this evaluation was that the hotline was more than just a service providing information to programs and persons interested in volunteering, it also provided individuals with an opportunity to talk with someone who would listen to their questions regarding this problem for themselves or someone who they knew casually or intimately.

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Illinois Literacy Hotline Evaluation

Introduction

The Illinois Literacy Hotline was cooperatively established by the Illinois State Board of Education (Adult Education Section-N.A.A.E.S.C.), and Northern Illinois University in January, 1985. The Secretary of State's Literacy office began providing financial support later in that year. From January, 1985 to June 1987 a total of 13,500 prospective students and volunteers were referred to 200 literacy programs throughout the State of Illinois. The literacy hotline was housed at Northern Illinois University and operated by the staff at the Northern Area Adult Education Service Center. It was initiated in direct response to the National Literacy campaign that began in September 1983 to create awareness about the growing problem of illiteracy in the United States. The primary objective of the state and national initiative was to promote volunteerism in literacy programs at the local level.

The voluntary effort in Illinois evolved in three phases. The first phase began with the issuance of a position statement regarding literacy volunteerism in the State of Illinois. Phase 2 was the establishment of a toll-free literacy hotline at the Northern Area Adult Education Service Center (NAAESC). Phase 3 began with national, state, and local media campaigns aimed at creating an awareness about this growing problem that was effecting an estimated 25 million adults nationally and at least 2 million within the state of Illinois (it was estimated that at least 1 million of these individuals lived in the Chicagoland area).

In January 1985 the Illinois literacy hotline began providing referral information to a limited number of literacy programs and persons interested in either volunteering or learning how to read. From January "85 through December '85, a total of 880 calls were taken and referred. Since the national awareness campaign which began in April 1986, a total of 12,292 calls were taken and referred to over 200 literacy programs within Illinois. read.

The primary objective of the literacy hotline is to refer potential students and volunteers to local literacy programs throughout the state of Illinois. Persons calling the Hotline are divided into two primary categories those calling to volunteer to teach reading skills and those calling to seek services (i.e. adult basic education, general educational development certificate, etc.) from literacy programs (i.e.

public schools, volunteer literacy programs, community colleges, libraries, community based).

Purpose of the Evaluation

The purpose of this evaluation was two-fold: 1) to assess the effectiveness of the services provided to adult education literacy programs, potential adult learners, and volunteers; and 2) to determine what were some of the critical issues (politics, turf issues, logistics, hours of operation, etc.) that impact upon the effectiveness of a hotline's service of delivery to adult basic education programs.

Key Audience

The primary audience consisted of the Project Director (NAAESC), the funding agencies (Illinois State Board of Education/Adult Continuing Education Section, and the Secretary of State's Literacy Office), and the on-line supervisors for the literacy hotline. The secondary audience was a random selection of literacy programs throughout the state. They were each contacted and asked for information that would be relevant for conducting the evaluation.

Contraints

The budget allotted to conduct the evaluation; the time-frame required to collect the data from potential volunteers, students, and literacy programs, and the geographic distribution of those participating in this evaluation; the number of staff persons collecting the data, and the experience of each in data collection were aspects of this evaluation that were seen as contraints.

Evaluation Questions & Sub Questions

The following questions were addressed:

1. Does the Hotline meet its objective?
   a. Does it successfully refer students and volunteers to programs in their area?
      involvement in a literacy program?
   b. Does it provide local literacy programs with timely and useful information regarding prospective students and volunteers?

2. Is the Hotline working as planned?
   a. Is there an effective and efficient referral system for

volunteers and students?

b. Are literacy programs satisfied with the services of the state hotline referral system?

3. Is it meeting important needs or could it meet different needs?
   a. Does the Hotline budget affect the type of services that could be provided?
   b. What could the Hotline be doing in addition to, or instead of what it is doing?

4. What political issues if any, affect the effectiveness of the hotline?
   a. Are programs in a given area working cooperatively?
   b. Are turf issues a factor?

Results

Three mass mailings were sent to 155 literacy programs within the state. The first mailing was sent from the Northern Area Adult Education Service Center in January to inform literacy programs that an evaluation of the literacy hotline was being conducted. The second mailing with the questionaires was sent in February. A third mailing was sent by the Secretary of State requesting that their funded programs participate in the evaluation effort. One hundred fourteen surveys (78%) were returned from agencies representing the public schools(14%),libraries(5%), community colleges (37%), community based organizations (15%), Literacy Volunteers (14%), Laubach Literacy (6%), Other (4%).

Telephone interviews were conducted with a stratifed random sampling of prospective students and volunteers who had contacted the hotline between January 1987 and June 1987. A total of 107 individuals were contacted by phone from 4 geograhic areas within the state: Chicago (30), northern (26), central (31), and the south (20). The calls were evenly distributed between volunteers and those who called because they wanted to learn how to read. Interviews began in April 1987. Two hundred and three phone calls were made. Three calls were attempted per interviewee.

Interpretation of the Data

There is a direct correlation between the number of calls recieved by the hotline and television publicity. Prior to the advent of the national media campaign only 880 calls were recieved between January 1985 and December 1985 for an average of 51 calls per month. As a result of the national, state, and local media efforts an average of 518 calls were received per month. Of those who were interviewed, 77% were white, 77% were

female, 38% were between the ages of 22-30, 53% were married, 46% had children between the ages of 1-3, 35% had completed 13-14 years of education, and 95% had never volunteered in an adult education program. Of those who were interested in learning how to read, 46% were black, 40% were white, 54% were male, 46% were female, 34% had only completed 7-9 years of school, 34% were between the ages of 22-30, 34% had children between the ages of 1-3, 46% were married and 72% had never participated in an adult education program. Of those prospective students and volunteers interviewed 42% and 32% respectively indicated that they had received the hotline number from a television announcement. Twenty percent of the students and 22% of the volunteers received their information from a source other than the media, books/magazines, radio.

The following reasons were given as to why individuals contacted the literacy hotline:

Table 1

Students	Volunteers
For career advancement	Values the skills of reading and wanted to help someone else
To gain employment	Had some free time
For job placement	Not working at this time

In general, both literacy programs and those seeking information from the literacy hotline are satisfied with the service that has been provided. Sixty one per cent of those literacy programs reporting indicated that they were satisfied with the information provided by the hotline "most of the time", and 22% were "always satisfied". Only 6% were "rarely" or "never satisfied". Of those potential volunteers and students participating in this evaluation 40% and 31% respectively, stated that the hotline operators were"very helpful".

At the local level literacy programs are working together. In several communites they are sharing personnel, supplies (books, materials, etc.), equipment and space. Follow-up correspondance is sent to volunteers, students, and literacy programs. For volunteers and students a list of all available programs in their area is provided; and conversly a list of all potential volunteers and students names are forwarded to all literacy programs. Literacy programs are sharing and coordinating their program efforts to best service the people within their community. Occasionally there may be some confusion by volunteers and students regarding how they should use the information that they received from the hotline, but in general the information is understood. A significant portion of those

students(94%) and volunteers(88%) that were interviewed indicated that they understood the information that was provided in the letter. Part of the reason for this, is that they are given the same information on the phone when they called. This corresponds to the information received from literacy program providers, who indicated that over half of the students and volunteers that contacted them as a result of the hotline, had the correct contact persons name in their organization "most of the time" and 20% said that the caller had the correct information "all the time".

In general local literacy programs supported the efforts of the hotline to inform them of prospective volunteers and adult learners in their area. Over one-half of the literacy programs were satisfied with the hotline service "most of the time", 22% were satisfied with the hotline services "all the time". Forty seven percent would like the hotline to provide students and volunteers with information about their program. Literacy programs questioned the amount of time it takes for information about volunteers and students to reach them. Although students(62%) and volunteers(53%) reported that they had received correspondance within 2 weeks of their call to the hotline, literacy programs(54%) reported that it took approximately 4 weeks for them to receive correspondance from the hotline. Part of the reason for this is that program letters and information regarding potential students and volunteers in their area are mailed in groupings rather than on a case by case basis. This is related to operational cost and personnel contraints.

Conclusion

Finally, this evaluation has shown that the Illinois literacy hotline is effectively transmitting information to potential students, volunteers, and literacy programs across the state. However the increasing demands placed on the staffing arrangements, budgets, indirectly by local and national media campaigns are having an affect on how timely and accurate information is provided. The hotline therefore needs to seek out additional or alternative financial and personnel arrangements if it is to continue to provide quality service. Personnel are being asked to not only provide referrals, but emotional support to its callers. In addition to this programs would like staff to be able to more specific information regarding programs at the local level. In order to provide this service, there needs to be on-going dialogue (Hotline updates in the Secretary of State's literacy newsletter, or a quarterly newsletter disseminated by the hotline staff.) between the hotline staff, literacy programs, and prospective students and volunteers. In conclusion, if the hotline is to continue providing services effectively, then budgetary reviews, service evaluations, and an assessment of the continued need for such services should be evaluated annually.

THE LONG-TERM EFFECTS OF WINGSPREAD CONFERENCES

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ABSTRACT

Very little research has been conducted on conferencing as a medium for adult learning or professional development. The cognitive and behavioral changes that occur in the individual as a result of attending a professional conference may be manifested in the activities of that individual several months after conference attendance. This evaluation sought to determine the perceptions of participants in Wingspread conferences regarding the conference objectives and subsequent consequences and accomplishments a year to two-and-a-half years after the conference. The results of the study showed that the top-ranked conference accomplishments or outcomes did not bear directly on the perceived conference objectives. Whereas the conferences were designed to analyze an issue or chart future directions for a field or organization, participants viewed the principal accomplishments in personal interest or personal growth terms. There were, however, many professional activities listed by the evaluation respondents resulting from conference participation.

THE LONG-TERM EFFECTS OF WINGSPREAD CONFERENCES

"...What I heard discussed at the [Wingspread] conference remains in my awareness whenever considerations are made regarding how to better deliver services to ... clients."
questionnaire response

Introduction

According to William B. Boyd, former president of The Johnson Foundation, "Conferences seem a frail weapon against formidable dragons like threats to peace and the neglect of children, but, well used, they have a power to instruct, motivate and mobilize people for tasks that require attention" (1987, p.3). How well The Johnson Foundation met these challenges formed the basis for this study.

The specific question this evaluation study sought to answer was: What are the long-term effects of Wingspread conferences? This is an important topic because much time, effort, and money are expended annually on conferences both large and small. Very little research has been conducted on conferencing as a medium for adult learning or professional development. Two important focuses in the field of education are the cognitive and behavioral changes that occur in an individual. Indications of some of those changes are the long-term consequences of conference participation. The results of the study of twelve Wingspread conferences may serve as a guide that is useful to planners of other professional conferences.

Methodology

Eleven conferences sponsored by the Keland Endowment Fund of The Johnson Foundation were selected for this study because of their similar funding criteria and because their conference topics were included in three of the Foundation's major program categories (Educational Excellence, Improvement of the Human Environment, and Intellectual and Cultural Growth). In addition, a twelfth conference was selected to pilot the questionnaire because most of the participants of that conference were specialists in evaluation and it was felt that they would be able to provide feedback on the content and format of the questionnaire. The results from that pilot study did not differ appreciably from the Keland conferences and were included in the overall report.

A four-page questionnaire was mailed to each of the participants in the conferences studied. A cover letter describing the study, a copy of the conference program, and a stamped and addressed reply envelope (to be returned to the researcher) were included. A total of 484

questionnaires were sent; 205 (42%) were returned completed. The length of time between the actual conference and the study ranged from one year to two and a half years. Check lists were used to characterize and rank the perceived principal objectives and accomplishments of the conference. Additional open-ended questions sought specific information on activities, events, publications, etc. resulting from participation in the conference. Points were assigned to the top three objectives and accomplishments listed on each individual questionnaire and the highest total numbers of "ranking points" determined the principal perceived objectives and accomplishments.

Since the data in this study were gathered by self-report, it cannot be concluded that all the results reported occurred solely as consequences of conference participation. Papers, task forces, etc. which participants attribute to a particular conference might conceivably have been produced without the conference. What this study does reveal is the participants' perceptions of conference objectives and subsequent consequences or accomplishments.

Benefits of Long-term Evaluation

The process of evaluating conferences several months after they have occurred has three benefits:

1. The "glow" has worn off and participants are able to give more objective responses.
2. Large-scale tangible effects are usually not manifested for at least six months (usually more) after the conference due to agency/organization budgetary considerations, professional journal review procedures, national conference agendas, etc.
3. Personal agendas and focuses can be more fully reevaluated and directions identified if sufficient time is allowed. Many of the personal activities listed by the respondents were work/leadership-related. The greatest overall impact will likely occur in the day-to-day activities of the participants.

Results of the Study

The items provided in the conference objectives and accomplishments check lists were categorically grouped into 1) task-oriented characteristics and 2) personal/interpersonal-oriented characteristics.

Principal Objectives

Of twenty objectives provided in the check list, the top ranked conference objectives, as indicated by the participant responses from all twelve conferences, were:

1. Analyzing an issue or problem
2. Communicating across constituencies
3. Charting future directions

Items 1 and 3 are task-oriented and were similar to the majority of the statements of purpose prepared by the conference planners for each conference, while item 2 is interpersonally oriented. Following are the complete results:

1. Analyzing an issue or problem (221 ranking points)
2. Communicating across constituencies (disciplines, nations, racial, ethnic, cultural, ideological) (150 ranking points)
3. Charting future directions (133 ranking points)
4. Sharing information with peers (91 ranking points)
5. Developing strategies (76 ranking points)
6. Policy making (53 ranking points)
7. Deliberating (51 ranking points)
8. Developing new ideas (46 ranking points)
9. Suggesting solutions (46 ranking points)
10. Planning for action (33 ranking points)
11. Making findings in one field available to another (31 ranking points)
12. Facilitating rapport among participants (25 ranking points)
13. Drafting a report (24 ranking points)
14. Decision making on a course of action (22 ranking points)
15. Summarizing achievement in a field (17 ranking points)
16. Translating research into practice (16 ranking points)
17. Establishing a new organization (5 ranking points)
18. Contributing to the personal growth of participants (4 ranking points)
19. Solving a problem (4 ranking points)
20. Developing a research design (2 ranking points)

Principal Accomplishments

Of fifteen accomplishments provided in the check list, the top ranked conference accomplishments, as indicated by the participant responses from all twelve conferences, were:

1. Perceptions altered and expanded
2. Useful new relationships and contacts established
3. New knowledge exchanged

All three characteristics are interpersonal/personal-oriented and therefore related to only one of the top ranked objectives and purposes of the conferences. The expanded perceptions and new relationships made up most of the specific activities listed by the respondents and are the energy that power the works of the conference.

Following are the complete results:

1. Perceptions altered and expanded (178 ranking points)
2. Useful new relationships and contacts established (154 ranking points)
3. New knowledge exchanged (154 ranking points)

4. Commitment to conference issues increased (104 ranking points)
5. New ideas generated (97 ranking points)
6. Ideas and concepts incorporated in agendas of organizations or institutions (95 ranking points)
7. Relationships with colleagues renewed and strengthened (55 ranking points)
8. Publications, speeches, media products generated (47 ranking points)
9. Policies formulated and adopted (36 ranking points)
10. New approaches adopted (21 ranking points)
11. Conference accomplished little or nothing as far as I know (17 ranking points)
12. New institutions, organizations, or working groups established (13 ranking points)
13. Programs initiated (6 ranking points)
14. Other (6 ranking points)
15. Career enhanced (1 ranking point)

While recognizing that all three principal outcomes were interpersonal/affective in nature, nevertheless there were many tangible (listable) results reported by the respondents.
A categorical grouping of these activities included:

Publications/Writings
- 8 Journal articles
- 8 Books/booklets
- 6 Organization publications
- 4 Conference proceedings
- 2 Position papers
- 2 Newspaper articles
- 1 Book review

Groups, Activities, Presentations
- 10 National presentations
- 7 Task forces
- 5 Regional or national conferences
- 4 Committees (usually within organizations)
- 4 Actions supporting services or research
- 3 Advocacy groups
- 3 Videos (1 documentary, 2 conference proceedings)
- 1 National convention workshop

Other
- 3 Legislative briefings and support by conference participants (independent of The Johnson Foundation)
- 2 National surveys
- 1 Federal funding authorization review

More developed, or refined, indications of the long-term effects of a conference can guide planners of future conferences by providing them with a framework for realistic goals and timetables for the changes they wish to inaugurate. For instance, the six-month (and usually

longer) time lag between a conference and any major outcomes, such as journal articles, organization agendas, etc. can affect the way the success of a conference is judged. Planners need to note that immediate results are not likely to occur. If target dates are set for a plan of action to be implemented or completed, then the dates of a conference need to be set accordingly.

The changes a conference is most likely to affect on an individual are changes in personal viewpoint and/or professional relationships. Organizational changes such as the initiation of new programs, policies, and working groups are perceived by conference participants as less likely to occur than personal changes, even when those organizational changes are viewed by the planners of a conference as the primary objectives .

In 1968 Margaret Mead wrote, "Perhaps the most exacting requirement for conference participants is to be able to take the conference experience as self-contained, not demanding any immediate outcome, not insisting on any written report, nor even a record on which he can draw, willing to believe that from the new understandings that have grown within the conference new results will come later on in the work of individual participants or in the state of the art or science which is the subject of discussion" (p.22). The results of the Wingspread study appear to reinforce Mead's statement.

Summary

What is notable is that the top-ranked conference accomplishments or outcomes do not bear directly on the perceived objectives of the conference. Whereas the conferences were designed to analyze an issue or chart future directions for a field or organization, participants viewed the principal accomplishments in personal interest or personal growth terms.

Recognition that personal/interpersonal, affective outcomes have greater weight and meaning in participants' minds than do tangible products of conferences, and that tangible outcomes are not likely to emerge until six months or so after a conference, can have important implications for conferencing design, for setting realistic goals for conferences, and for projecting timetables for achieving conference objectives.

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Factors Influencing Lifelong Learning of Professional Nurses

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to identify factors that influenced a group of "high learners" in the pursuance of lifelong learning. Research questions posed for the study focused on the source of lifelong learning; role of the pre-service curriculum in developing and nurturing lifelong learning; professional role expectations; effects of mentoring/role-modeling; presence or lack of support systems; and primary benefits derived from continuing learning.

A grounded theory approach was used. Purposeful sampling was obtained through the process of nomination. Using characteristics based on Tough's (1971) "high learners", 23 professional nurses nominated by their peers agreed to participate. Constant comparative analysis was used to code the data collected through interviews.

The source of lifelong learning came from the self, nurtured by parents and family. The curriculum aspect was found to be a more dominant factor at the graduate with mentors a prominent system. Professional role expectations were a major learning stimulus, although this group of "high learners" followed a more atypical patterns of continuing learning than the average professional nurse. Major restraining factors were self limitations and the balancing of multiple societal roles. All nominees experienced a sense of empowerment as a result of their learning activities.

Factors Influencing Lifelong Learning of Professional Nurses

Nature of the Problem

Approximately 1,000,000 professional nurses are practicing in the United States today and this makes them a major adult learner population. For the most part, the professional nursing organizations have stressed voluntary participation in continuing learning but there is considerable variation in the type and the extent of the learning activities undertaken.

A number of studies have focused on the student and the professional practice of nursing, particularly in regard to the development of professional behavior. For the most part, these studies have attempted to identify and describe the professional behaviors and the manner in which they have occurred . Little attention has been paid to the matter in which a major adult learner population becomes lifelong learners. Some authors have identified the pre-service educational programs as the logical places for the development and fostering of lifelong learning (Cooper, 1973; Houle, 1980). However, a search of the literature revealed very little research in the area of deliberate efforts to address lifelong learning in the professional nursing school curriculum at the pre-service level.

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to identify factors that influenced a group of professional nurse "high learners" in the pursuance of lifelong learning.

Research Questions

The research questions formulated for this study were: (1) where does the value of lifelong learning originate and how is it cultivated? (2) what role does the pre-service curriculum play in establishing the importance of life long learning and/or nurturing it in the professional nurse? (3) what effect does the professional role expectation have on the professional nurse relative to continuing formal professional education? (4) what role does mentoring and/or role-modeling play in fostering a desire for continuing formal education in the professional nurse? (5) what/who are the major support systems professional nurses identify as influencing the pursuit of continuing formal education? (6) what are the primary personal and professional benefits experienced by professional nurses who pursue continuing learning?

Methodology

Both adult continuing education and nursing are in need of an expanded body of knowledge to serve as a guide for their respective practitioners. In the building of the scientific base, qualitative approaches are particularly suited to those fields or domains where there

is need to enlarge the body of knowledge. The method selected for this study was grounded theory, developed by Glaser and Strauss (1967).

In order to carry out the methodology in this study, several factors needed to be addressed. One priority was the identification of a group of professional nurses who are lifelong learners. A description of a "professional nurse lifelong learner" was developed using characteristics developed by Tough (1971). The description stated that Acknowledged Professional Nurse Lifelong Learners: (1) are nurses with baccalaureate preparation in nursing who are competent professional practitioners; (2) have a strong commitment to plan and achieve major personal and professional goals; (3) take an active role in maximizing their potential to continue to learn and explore the full range of their abilities; (4) select and direct their career plans, and who are essentially satisfied with their achievements; (5) plan, develop, and select learning activities appropriate to personal and professional goals.

The data for this study were obtained through purposeful sampling. Individuals were nominated by their peers based on the above criteria developed by the researcher. The nominations were made by selected constituents of the Illinois Nurses' Association, the established nursing organization representing professional nurses in the state of Illinois. A total of 6 districts in northern Illinois agreed to participate as nominators. Twenty-four professional nurses were nominated by their districts and 23 agreed to participate in the study.

Data were collected utilizing a partially structured interview. The nominees were asked to tell the researcher, in their own words, where they believed the value of life long learning originated in their own lives. An interview guide was developed for the interviews to make sure all areas of interest to the researcher were covered in the course of the interview. Interviews were tape recorded. Constant comparative analysis was used to code the data. Six categories were identified as Intrapersonal, Socialization/Developmental, Socialization/Professional, Enrichments, Restraints, and Empowerment. The categories were conceptualizations of factors identified by the nominees.

Discussion of Findings

Based on the data, the answer to the first research question for this study was the primary source of lifelong learning comes from the person. Both heredity and environment were identified as primary contributors to the development of life long learning but the essence came from the individual. The nurturing aspect involved in the individual's commitment, need for challenge, the desire to know, and the presence of an environment conducive to the fostering of these elements. The family, especially the parents, provided the environment in which the fostering of lifelong learning could and did occur. These findings concur with those of Houle (1961). The majority of nominees in this study seemed to fit into Houle's "learning oriented" classification and

expressed feelings and beliefs reflecting supportive influences and positive reinforcement.

In regard to the role of the pre-service curriculum as an influencing factor, the outcome was not as clear cut. In reviewing the nursing literature there was scant information available on the specifics of, if, or how this was accomplished. The commitment to lifelong learning as a responsibility of the pre-service curriculum was advanced by Cooper (1973) and Houle (1980). Phipps (1977) suggested that nursing students brought with them positive attitudes about continuing learning and that the curriculum in the nursing schools served to support and encourage these activities. She concluded that the students were pre-socialized in regard to continuing learning.

The nominees in the study being presented, were rather vague when questioned about the role of the pre-service curriculum in regard to fostering continuing learning. Few could state specific courses that emphasized the need to be lifelong learners. Most nominees stated their first priority in their basic nursing programs was to become competent nurses and to learn their professional role -- future learning seemed a distant second. From the data in this study, it was concluded that the pre-service curricula did have an influencing effect on the students' commitment to lifelong learning but the effect was informal and/or incidental for the most part rather than constituting a formal objective of the pre-service nursing programs, occurring chiefly through the professional socialization process.

In contrast, when nominees described their graduate programs, most of them could clearly relate courses and program objectives aimed at fostering lifelong learning. Many cited examples of being able to concentrate more on conceptual activities and self-directed learning since they were comfortable with the technical aspects of their nursing role and were comptetent in the practice of professional nursing.

In regard to the third research question, most nominees were in agreement that continuing learning is a part of the role expectation of the professional nurse. This bears out the findings of many studies done in the area of professional socialization in nursing (Bevis, 1973; Dolphin, 1983; Phipps, 1977; Sovie, 1972). The majority of nominees held the conviction that continuing learning was inherent in their concept of the role of the professional nurse. The way the nominees implemented this facet of their role was through a plan that had been developed and carried out in a systematic fashion. It is evident that this group of "high learners" followed a course that differed from that of the typical professional nurse. The nominees' pursuit of graduate education, as well as ongoing continuing education activities to keep updated and competent in their specific roles, presented a model that is occurring more frequently in today's world but which is still far from the norm for most professional nurses.

Mentors and role-models played an important role in most of the

nominees' lives. This finding supports the work of Bolton (1980), Sheehy (1976), and Vance (1982). The nominees, at times, tended to blend or blur the concepts of mentor and role-model. The data suggested that role modeling was more frequently seen in situations where the practitioner was in the process of establishing the professional role and incorporating examples and behaviors into that role. Mentors were more common in the world of students at the master's and/or doctoral levels, where a different set of professional skills and knowledge, roles, and directions were evolving.

In answer to research question number 4, the major support systems identified by nominees were similar to those in the literature. The majority of nominees were married and indicated that they worked full-time or part-time in addition to their roles as wives/mothers and students. In almost all instances, spouses supported their wives' continuing learning plans. However, the forms their support took varied from tacit approval with no overt opposition, to a redefining of family roles and responsibilities to facilitate optimal learning. These findings are similar to those of Rice (1979) and Nieva and Gutek (1981). The nominees in this study found support in their pursuit of continuing formal education through conventional channels--their spouses, families, mentors, and peers. The problems they encountered were those experienced by women like themselves in today's world--wives/mothers/career women/students who face similar problems when trying to balance multiple roles within a limited time frame.

The last research question focused on the primary personal and professional benefits experienced by the nominees. The findings showed a wide range of enrichments. As beneficial and welcome as these were, most of the nominees stated that the major benefit was something more, something that made it possible to exert control over their personal and professional lives. The term selected to convey this concept was empowerment. Lifelong learning provided the nominees in this study with a form of transformation and liberation that was not present prior to the experiences associated with lifelong learning activities. In searching the literature for similar findings, the work of Boshier (1977) described somewhat the same idea. Boshier's focus was motivational research which described adult learners as either "life chance" or "life space" oriented. He stated that "life space" individual symbolize self-actualized individuals who seek learning to expand their environment.

Two major propositions were formulated based on the data. These are:

1. Lifelong learning is a value developed very early in life through a supportive family environment, as as part of the socialization process, and is strengthened in the professional education program (nursing).

2. The major outcomes of lifelong learning for the professional nurse is an expanded personal and professional knowledge and understanding of self that provides a source of empowerment.

It is recommended that the findings be verified with other groups of professional nurses who meet the criteria developed for "high learners". At present a major debate within the nursing profession is going on in regard to entry level for the professional nurse. A more intensive look at professional role functions, realistic outcomes, and societal expectations is in order to make an informed decision on appropriate entry level for professional practice, which is now advocated as the baccalaureate degree.

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ABSTRACT

COMPARISON OF THE TRAINING PROCESS OR METHODS BETWEEN IN-HOUSE TRAINERS AND EXTERNAL CONSULTANTS

Westover, Becky H.

Purpose: The purpose of the research was to determine what reasons trainers have for selecting training procedures, and which of the two types of trainers more nearly follows procedures suggested by the current professional literature. The research was also designed to determine what methodology in-house trainers use to select external consultants for training projects.

Methods: Eight in-house trainers and eight external consultants with five or more years of training experience were interviewed. The respondents were selected from professional associations. The goals of the interview were to obtain responses to a general set of questions which were included in the interview protocol.

Results: The research determined that in-house trainers and external consultants handle the general human performance improvement model of analysis, design/development, implementation, and evaluation in a similar manner. Specific techniques within the model are different between the two types of trainers.

Conclusions: There are subtle differences between the way internal and external consultants practice the elements of the training process. For example, external consultants are more concerned about an accurate needs assessment. In-house trainers are more apt to choose their design of the program based on past company tradition, while external consultants are often hired because of the variety of program design they can provide.

Both groups seem to work with subject matter experts in a similar manner. The scope of the project influences the way in which either group works with subject matter experts. Evaluation appears to be a frustrating part of the training process for both groups. In-house trainers had more corporate support for a thorough evaluation than did external consultants. In-house trainers were also doing more with cost-benefit analysis of training. The research identified six primary reasons external consultants were hired instead of giving the project to the in-house training personnel.

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EXAMINING HOW IN-HOUSE TRAINING PERSONNEL AND EXTERNAL CONSULTANTS PRACTICE TRAINING PROCEDURES OR PROCESSES.

1. Research Study

The purpose of the research was to determine what reasons trainers have for selecting training procedures. The research determined which of the two types of trainers, in-house training personnel or external consultants, more nearly follows procedures suggested by the current professional literature. The research was also designed to determine what methodology in-house trainers use to select external consultants for training projects.

The research objectives were:

A. to determine how experienced internal trainers and external training consultants practice the following training procedures: conducting a needs assessment; choosing program design; working with subject matter experts; evaluating the training program; carrying out cost-benefit analysis.

B. to determine which training procedures or processes internal trainers and external consultants use the most in practice.

C. to determine which procedures the two types of trainers practice similarly and differently, and how this may or may not influence a corporate training decision.

D. to compare what training procedures are being followed by the research population with the practices discussed in the current literature.

E. to learn how certain corporate managers decide whether to use in-house training personnel or hire external training consultants to conduct a training project.

2. Importance to the practice of adult, community or continuing education.

Corporate training, whether conducted by an in-house trainer or an external consultant, represents one of the largest areas where adults receive on-the-job education. Since training must be an integral part of corporate life, the training procedure should be examined for maximum impact. Firms in highly competitive industries often see the training of adults as a key strategic tool. One way to make this educational process more effective would be for trainers to follow certain training procedures; however, because the goals of corporate training vary widely, the processes selected may also very widely. Yet it is important to understand why the two types of trainers select certain types of needs assessment, program design, evaluation methods, cost-benefit analysis, and how they work with subject matter experts.

3. Methodology

The personal interview was chosen as the preferred method of assessment to determine how the training process is managed by in-house and external consultants. Eight in-house trainers and eight external consultants with five or more years of training experience were interviewed. The respondents were selected from professional training associations. The goals of the interview were to obtain responses to a general set of questions which were included in the interview protocol.

The personal interview was the preferred method to deal with the complexity of the subject matter. Face to face communication provides the flexibility to get more in-depth answers, and to probe for the reasons why a response was given. The goals of the interview were to obtain responses to a general set of questions, which were gleaned from the literature as significant procedures in the training process. These questions were included in the interview protocol, and to take advantage of special background and expertise of the subjects in order to gain a broader perspective of the training process under a variety or organizational and educational structures.

4. Progress or stage of the Research

The research was completed March 15, 1988 as a requirement for a Master's Thesis in Adult and Continuing Education.

5. Summary of the Findings

The purpose of the research was to learn how internal and external consultants decide to implement the training process, and the rationale for these decisions. The results of the study indicate there is a difference. There are similarities between the steps of the training process depending on the financial scope of the project. Both types of trainers conducted each of the steps more thoroughly and more alike depending on the dollar value of the project and number of hours required to complete the project. In other words, when there is a large training project to deliver, both types of trainers go about it in a similar manner.

The research indicated, for example, when doing needs assessments, external consultants are more concerned about an accurate needs assessment the first time. Since the external consultant has written into their proposal the amount of time needed for needs analysis, accuracy is important. On the other hand, in-house consultants have greater access to the client base, so presumably can follow up to verify needs analysis at a later date. Current literature suggests that corporate trainers only conduct a needs assessment forty-seven percent of the time. The research indicated both types of trainers at least do some type of needs assessment for every training project. The preferred types of needs assessment for in-house trainers

was the individual interview, when time permits. However, external consultants decide training needs with the company manager and often do their own analysis. Again, the individual interview is the preferred way of gathering information, however, time does not usually allow for the individual interviews.

Most companies seek results, not methodologies, from consultants. Companies assume trainers have a good structured process for approaching problems. This assumption leads to frustration by both internal and external consultants particularly in the area of implementating programs. Both types of trainers expressed the belief that active programs are often not implemented properly. The frustration was felt more strongly by the external consultants who sometimes felt excellent training materials were not utilized properly because no individual within the client organization felt the responsibility to keep the project on-going.

Both types of trainers were asked to prioritize which three instructional technology techniques they used most frequently. The list was as follows: videotape, computer assisted instruction, audio tape, computer managed instruction, slide and tape, 16mm film, industry study, work-book, filmstrip, sound filmstrip, interactive video, case study, professional developed materials (vendor purchase), simulations, role-play, discussions, lecture and other. From this list, the most preferred type of program instructional technology was the work-book, chosen by twenty-nine percent of the internal consultants. The second and third choice was the videotape and discussions respectively at sixteen percent. The external consultants also preferred first the work-book, then discussions, and a three way tie between videotape, slide and tape, simulations. The internal consultants had a narrower range of methods used. The external consultants developed a wider range of program methods, in some cases certain technologies were their area of expertise and the primary reason they were hired for the project.

Both types of trainers would also like corporate support for a more comprehensive evaluation procedure. The preferred method of evaluating the training's success between the two types of trainers is illustrated in Table 1.

Both types of trainers expressed frustration about the lack of corporate support for evaluation. The four internal consultants that used assessment at the end of training, all expressed a desire for the time and support to be more thorough. The external consultants wrote in the proposal the cost of evaluation. The two consultants that generally did assessment at the end of training felt the same lack of corporate support as did the internal consultants choosing the same response.

When asked the question, "What type of cost analysis instruments do you use"?, one internal consultant answered

he used computer based analysis; one used analysis the corporation had developed; six were not required to provide any type of cost analysis. When the external consultants were asked the same question, two responded they use analysis they have developed; three do not use cost analysis; three responded the results of training are tied into performance improvement and increased profits of the company. External consultants were more concerned about the cost-benefit ratio of the training because of the commitment to it made in their proposals. Three individuals responded they feel the future will bring better methods in which to analyze the cost-benefit of training.

The greatest procedural agreement is in the method of working with subject matter experts to obtain technical information for the instructional design. There is not a difference between the way the two types of consultants work with the subject matter experts. Instead, the nature and scope of the project determine the methodology in working with subject matter experts.

The most significant finding that emerged from the interviews was that cost is what determines the choice of using an in-house or external consultant. Fourteen individual responded to a series of questions designed to determine the choice of an internal or external consultant for a training project. Two external consultants did not participate because they had no previous experience as internal training managers hiring external consultants. When asked the question,
"What criteria do you use to evaluate proposals?
The question was answered by all fourteen people as "cost" and then they added "to see if the proposal will meet their requirements. Eight consultants mentioned this lack of precision explains why external consultants often work for the same corporation as a major portion of their business. Corporations often find it is less expensive to hire external consultants because of the savings on paying corporate benefits. A figure mentioned by two interviewees, was that external consultants can be hired for twenty-five percent less than internal consultants.

While the study raises many issues for further research, it answered the research hypothesis. In-house trainers and external consultants handle the general human performance improvement model of analysis, design\development, implementation, and evaluation using much of the same methodology. Specific techniques within the model are different between the two types of trainers.

Table 1 Preferred Evaluation Method

Internal	External	
1	1	4 Step Kirkpatrick Model
4	2	Assessment at the end of training
1	1	Evaluate, and then follow-up
1	0	Test for Knowledge gain
1	0	Evaluate the training presenters
0	2	Evaluate performance improvement
0	2	Analyze by the corporate profit gain
8	8	TOTAL

Reference List

Bowman, B. (1987) Assessing your needs assessment. Training and Development Journal, 41, 30-33.

ABSTRACT

AN ANALYSIS OF SUPERVISORY & MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT TRAINING NEEDS OF PUBLIC SECTOR EMPLOYEES

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This study describes self-reported training needs on 12 job dimensions which were examined for 287 St. Louis City Service managers and supervisors. These managers and supervisors were predominantly white, males at the first level of supervision whose average age was 47 and who supervised an average of 13 employees. The supervisory dimensions for which there was the greatest perceived need for training were: discipline; motivation, human relations; performance management; and planning. Training needs analysis was also performed on five subgroupings of supervisors: by age, race, sex, level of supervision, and number of employees supervised. Overall, there was considerable similarity across all of the subgroups in the perceived need for training in the five dimensions listed above. Training needs unique to distinct subgroups include: (a) Training (of own employees) for first level and young supervisors, and (b) Problem Solving skills training for older supervisors. The greatest need for training across all supervisory dimensions was voiced by (a) older, (b) nonwhite, and (c) female supervisors. The least important training need was Counseling.

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AN ANALYSIS OF SUPERVISORY & MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT TRAINING NEEDS OF PUBLIC SECTOR EMPLOYEES

This paper is divided into three sections: (a) a summary description of the managers and supervisors providing responses to the Training Needs Survey administered by the Department of Personnel, (b) a description of the reliability of the twelve dimensions tapped by the survey, and (c) a description of the perceived training needs of the group overall and of the managers and supervisors grouped by age, race, sex, supervisory level, and number of employees supervised.

Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Responses were available for 287 of the 567 managers and supervisors to whom the training needs survey had been distributed (response rate = 51%). The majority of the sample was male (87%), white (71%), and at the first level of supervision (50%). The average age was 47 years and the average number of employees supervised was 13.

Reliability of Training Needs Dimensions

Prior to the analysis of each of the twelve supervisory dimensions on which training needs were assessed, the dimensions were examined for their internal consistency reliability. The higher the internal consistency among the items that make up each scale, the greater the likelihood that the items are in fact measuring the same dimension. Rather than analyzing all 48 items separately, they could be grouped into the dimension each was expected to measure.

Description of Perceived Training Needs

Assessment of perceived training needs was performed in the following manner. First, the 5-point training needs scale was collapsed into three classifications: no perceived need for training, little to some perceived need for training, and considerable to great perceived need for training. These three perceived training need categories could then be matched with the three importance ratings of each supervisory dimension (i.e., not important to job performance, important to job performance, and very important to job performance).

Second, the importance and perceived training need scores for the four items comprising each supervisory dimension were averaged into separate importance and training need scores for each dimension. Third, the number of managers and supervisors reporting every possible combination of importance and training need score was calculated. This analysis provided information on the percentage of managers and supervisors who perceived different training needs for dimensions that varied in their perceived importance to the supervisors' job performance (i.e., not important, important, and very important to job performance). The data to be reported focuses on those dimensions considered by the respondents to be important and very important to their job performance and for which they perceive a considerable to great need for training.

Overall Analysis

Of the twelve supervisory dimensions tapped by the training needs survey, the five dimensions considered very important to job performance by the greatest number of supervisors were:

Planning	(61%)
Time Management	(61%)
Discipline	(60%)
Motivation	(60%)
Assigning Work	(60%)

The five supervisory dimensions seen as important or very important to job performance and perceived as having the greatest need for training were:

Discipline	(42.9%)
Motivation	(42.9%)
Human Relations	(42.1%)
Performance Management	(41.1%)
Planning	(37.7%)

The supervisory dimension seen as least important to job performance and perceived as having the least need for training was Counseling (27.9%). for each of the above dimensions, approximately 40% or more of the respondents considered these important to very important to their job performance and also felt a considerable need for training in these areas. Of the five dimensions for which there was the greatest perceived need for training, three were also considered very important by almost two-thirds of the supervisors (i.e., Discipline, Motivation, and Planning).

Analysis by Age

To facilitate the analysis of training needs by age of manager or supervisor, the respondents were divided into three age groups: (a) 36 years and younger, (b) 37 to 56 years old, and (c) 57 years and older. These groupings were based on the average supervisory age and the distribution or range of ages around the average. Approximately 17% of the ages were represented in the first group, 68% in the second group, and 17% in the third group. The five top supervisory dimensions for each age group are shown below. As with the overall analysis, counseling was the lowest ranking supervision dimension for each age group.

36 and Younger		37 to 56 Years		57 and Older	
Motivation	(40.7%)	Discipline	(44.8%)	Human Relations	(50.8%)
Training	(39%)	Performance Management	(44.2%)	Motivation	(47.6%)
Discipline	(37.3%)	Human Relations	(42.4%)	Problem Solving	(46.1%)
Performance Management	(33.9%)	Motivation	(41.8%)	Discipline	(42.8%)
Assigning Work	(33.9%)	Planning	(38.8%)	Planning	(39.7%)
				Performance Management	(39.6%)

Two things are worth noting about these findings. First, the greatest needs for training are reported by the two older supervisory groups. Second, although there is considerable similarity in the perceived training needs of each group, there are also several training needs specific to the different age groups represented by the respondents. Unique to the youngest supervisors is the perceived need to acquire skills in providing Training to employees and in Assigning Work. Among the training needs specific to the two older groups of supervisors is a perceived need for Human Relations and Planning skills training. For the youngest group of supervisors, these two dimensions tied at a rank of sixth of 12. Finally, Problem Solving skills were seen as being important to the oldest group of supervisors and in need of training.

Analysis by Race

Although there was a sizeable number of black respondents represented in the sample, the percentage of respondents in other nonwhite ethnic categories was too small to analyze separately. Consequently, the respondents were divided into only two racial categories: white and nonwhite. The top five supervisory dimensions representing high importance to job performance and high perceived need for training are:

Nonwhite		White	
Discipline	(54.9%)	Human Relations	(38.5%)
Motivation	(53.7%)	Motivation	(38.0%)
Performance Management	(51.2%)	Discipline	(37.5%)
Problem Solving	(51.2%)	Performance Management	(37%)
Planning	(51.2%)	Planning	(32%)

Although there is considerable overlap in the dimensions identified by both groups as having a considerable to great need for training, the nonwhite respondents perceive a much greater need for training than do the white respondents. Indeed, although only the top five dimensions are listed here, Appendix B shows that a large portion of the nonwhite respondents perceive considerable need for training in all 12 supervisor dimensions. Once again, the dimension ranked lowest in perceived need for training is counseling. However, the percentage of nonwhites perceiving a need for counseling is as high as the largest number of white supervisors perceiving a considerable training need on any dimension.

Analysis by Sex

The analysis of training needs by sex are given below.

Females		Males	
Performance Management	(51.4%)	Motivation	(43.2%)
Discipline	(45.9%)	Discipline	(42.4%)
Human Relations	(43.2%)	Human Relations	(42.0%)
Problem Solving	(43.2%)	Performance Management	(39.6%)
Planning	(43.2%)	Planning	(36.8%)
Motivation	(40.5%)	Problem Solving	(35.6%)
Leadership	(40.5%)		

While there is considerable similarity in the rankings for the two groups, female respondents indicate a greater overall need for training than do males. This is especially evident in the larger percentage of female than male supervisors who perceive a considerable need for training in Performance Management. Counseling was the lowest ranked training need for males; time management was the lowest ranked training need for females.

Analysis by Supervisory Level

Because of the large number of supervisory levels represented in the sample (i.e., 10) and the small number of respondents in high levels, only three supervisory levels were used. One contained all of the first level supervisory personnel, another contained second level supervisors, and another contained third level supervisors and above.

First Level		Second Level		Third Level	
Motivation	(45.8%)	Human Relations	(46.9%)	Motivation	(45.3%)
Discipline	(45.1%)	Discipline	(39.5%)	Discipline	(42.2%)
Performance Management	(43.7%)	Performance Management	(35.8%)	Performance Management	(42.2%)
Human Relations	(43.0%)	Motivation	(35.8%)	Planning	(40.6%)
Training	(40.8%)	Problem Solving	(34.6%)	Communication	(34.4%)
				Problem Solving	(34.4%)

Although the differences in perceived training needs are not very large across the three supervisory level groups, there appears to be a slighter great need for training voiced by personnel in the first supervisory level across all of the supervisory dimensions. Also, a large percentage of first level supervisors perceive a considerable need for acquiring skills in providing training to their subordinates than do higher level supervisors. For all supervisory levels, counseling was the lowest ranked need.

Analysis by Number of Employees Supervised

For this analysis, the median number of respondents was used to classify the respondents by the number of employees supervised. Use of the median provides an approximately equal number of respondents in each group. Managers and supervisors were classified as having either (a) 11 or fewer employees or (b) more than 11 employees reporting to them.

11 or Fewer Employees		**More than 11 Employees**	
Discipline	(44.3%)	Human Relations	(41.9%)
Performance Management	(43.7%)	Motivation	(41.9%)
Motivation	(43.7%)	Discipline	(41.2%)
Human Relations	(42.4%)	Performance Management	(38.2%)
Training	(39.7%)	Planning	(37.5%)

There are strong similarities between the rankings for the two groups. Also, there is relatively little difference in the dimension rankings of importance and need for training. However, supervisors who supervise 11 or fewer employees perceived greater need for training across all of the supervisory dimensions. Counseling was the lowest ranking need.